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OBSTRUCTION.

THE CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER has every reason to be satisfied with the first night's debate on his proposed Standing Order. There may have been some ground for alternative suggestions of more rapid and vigorous action; but, as Mr. FAWCETT said, it was desirable not to exhaust the powers of the House in a first experiment. Lord HARTINGTON and the great body of the Opposition loyally supported the Government, notwithstanding a conventional objection on the ground that the Liberal leaders had not been consulted. The criticisms which Lord HARTINGTON thought proper to add were the result of the conventional habit or wish of Parliamentary opposition. The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER was fully justified in relying on the knowledge and conscience of the House, instead of undertaking to prove notorious facts by detailed evidence. Habitual misconduct by its nature consists of numerous incidents, which may all be separately trifling; but Mr. NEWDEGATE in some degree supplied Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE's omission by showing that Mr. PAENELL, Mr. O'DONNELL, and Major NOLAN had in the last Session made many hundred speeches. The allegation that some members of the Conservative party formerly practised obstruction on a small scale is irrelevant, even if it is true. If they had impeded the business of the House so far as to render extraordinary measures necessary, the present proposals would probably have been made by a Government which then commanded a large majority. It may be added that members of the regular Opposition are never likely to proceed to extremes, because they belong to a great party which is interested in maintaining the respect of the House. There can be no doubt that the concurrence of the Liberal leaders in the Standing Orders is politically prudent, as it is undoubtedly honest. The country would not have regarded with indifference any attempt to screen the enemies of Parliamentary freedom from the mild punishment which will follow the repetition of the offence. Mr. DILLWYN has fortunately been induced either to withdraw or to explain away an amendment to the effect that Parliament ought not to deal with the question on the eve of a dissolution. The House of Commons is bound both to maintain its own privileges during its last Session, and to hand over its powers unimpaired to the next Parliament. It is satisfactory to observe that Lord HARTINGTON expressly approved of immediate action; and Mr. DILLWYN probably deferred to the authority of his leader. Some of the preliminary conversations on Thursday evening must have vividly reminded the House of the inconvenience of frivolous interruption. It remains to be seen whether the members against whom the Standing Order is avowedly directed will furnish on the present occasion superfluous illustrations of the necessity of the measure which they oppose.

Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE has judiciously proposed the mildest remedy for obstruction which is consistent with possible efficiency. Some of the provisions embodied in notices of private members were perhaps equally unobjectionable; but it was obviously proper that the Ministerial leader of the House should be responsible for an organic change in its procedure. It has never before been found necessary to adapt the rules of debate to the contingency of deliberate obstruction of business. During some centuries it has been possible to rely on the good faith and

good breeding of members. It has now become necessary to counteract the efforts of cynical conspirators; and the task is extraordinarily difficult. Those who wish to bring Parliament into contempt would be almost as much gratified by stringent restrictions on the freedom of debate as by the exercise of unbounded license. Like the Russian Nihilists, whose enterprise is in some degree analogous to their own, they would gladly force the authority which they assail into excesses of despotism until they are able to destroy it. When the practice of obstruction first began, many proposals were made for the abolition of dilatory forms; but it appeared on fuller consideration that, in curtailing its own privileges, the House would not abate the mischief. If speeches were limited in length, they might be increased in frequency, especially as the obstructive faction constantly receives new reinforcements. It has for some time past been agreed that the internal legislation of the House against contumacious members must be personal, penal, and summary. The last condition is not the least essential. A prolonged debate on the culpability of a member accused of obstruction would serve his purpose as well as any other mode of wasting time and impeding the transaction of business. The most simple punishment which can be inflicted has the merit not only of being just and moderate, but of affording relief to the injured majority of the House. Silence imposed on a prolix brawler is at the same time a censure and a remedy. Perhaps some additional measure may be rendered necessary if the offence is repeated by accomplices, of whom there will be too many—

Primo avulso non deficit alter—

but prudent legislators will incline to undue leniency rather than err on the side of severity.

There has been much difference of opinion as to the expediency of investing the Speaker or the Chairman of Committees with new judicial functions. The Speaker's powers have hitherto been almost exclusively exercised in the form of calling to order members who have transgressed the rules of debate. The mysterious process of naming a delinquent member has almost always been held in reserve; and if ulterior proceedings are necessary, the House itself must intervene. A Chairman of Committees who is thwarted in his efforts to maintain order reports the case to the House on the resumption of the chair by the Speaker. One principle and one tradition have done much to support the dignity and authority of the House of Commons. According to the ancient and undoubted doctrine, the Speaker derives all his powers from the House of which he is the servant. At the same time it is understood that the authority of the Speaker, as the accredited organ of the House, is to be supported in all cases in which he has to act on his own discretion. Few Parliamentary outrages have caused juster indignation than the rudeness to the SPEAKER which has on one or two occasions formed an incident in the course of obstruction. With a prudent jealousy of any extension of the contentious functions of the Speaker, several framers of motions have proposed to give the initiation of proceedings against obstruction to private members; but the objection at once occurs, that the obstructive faction would probably turn the proposed machinery against the supporters of order. They would find amusement in moving resolutions, perhaps against

the leader of the Ministry or of the Opposition, with the additional excitement of divisions. It is well that the magnitude of a probably necessary innovation should not be disguised. A breach of the orders of the House, or a violation of ordinary propriety of language and demeanour, is an intelligible and simple offence, though it may not admit of previous definition. Obstruction, consisting probably in purposed garrulity, aided perhaps by citation of irrelevant documents, raises questions of opinion and of degree. The Speaker will have a delicate task in distinguishing between unconscious verbosity and purposed waste of time. The culprit will probably take care not to deviate too widely from the ostensible subject of debate; and the Speaker will have to judge how far he is either reasonable or sincere. There have been Speakers to whom the proposed power could not have been safely intrusted. The verdict of the tribunal which will decide the issue will not be equally open to question. On the whole, the plan of the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER seems more expedient. No member can be charged with obstruction until the Speaker or the Chairman has first called him to order, and afterwards named him. The presiding officer will thus discharge the duty of a committing magistrate, or of a grand jury, while he will be no party to the final conviction. The House will decide on motion, following the preliminary decision of the Speaker; not according to extraneous evidence, but, as Sir H. PEEK expressed it, by instinct, or rather by its own observation and knowledge. Recent experience shows that the worst offenders may always count on the aid of a small and sympathizing minority of English members; but the great majority of the House of Commons has long been weary of the insolence of the obstructive faction, and there will be less hesitation in imposing the penalty because it is extremely mild. An offender impervious to shame will not suffer severe hardship if he is suspended for the remainder of a sitting from the abuse of his privileges as a member of the House of Commons. The consequences of relapse or of repeated convictions are not unduly formidable; and indeed it may perhaps be found that the proposed legislation is simply experimental. The complaint that it is directed against an unpopular knot of members is true in fact, because they have hitherto been the only wilful offenders. It is possible that the formal embodiment in a Standing Order of the indignation of the House of Commons, and of its determination to emancipate itself from tyrannical caprice, may produce an impression which will obviate the necessity of actual resort to measures of prevention. The time which may be occupied in the debate will not have been lost, though it might be advantageously curtailed.

RUSSIA AND GERMANY.

EVERYTHING relating to the recent attempt on the CZAR's life is wonderful. It is wonderful that the German Government should have been long ago informed that something was being prepared in the Winter Palace, that the CZAR was warned, and that the warning was disregarded. It is wonderful that an attempt to kill the CZAR by the explosion of dynamite should have been actually made. It is wonderful that the conspirators should have expected to kill the CZAR by exploding dynamite through two solid floors. In point of fact, the floor of the room in which the CZAR was expected to dine was not in the least injured. Lastly, it is more wonderful than all that, at the end of ten days, nothing apparently should be known of what was really done or of who did it. The rumour of numerous arrests having been made before the explosion is confirmed, and there are other vague rumours of arrests having been made since the explosion. But it is not even hinted that any discoveries have been made showing to whom guilt is to be imputed. Either the police cannot find out the truth or it will not. Speculation has got so far as to surmise that the police are hedging, that they think the Nihilists are going to win in the long run, and that they consider it prudent to look forward to the day when those who arrest Nihilists may in their turn be arrested. This seems rather far-fetched; but the fact remains that the police seem to be either bewildered, or to fear some rock of high influence in their way which they cannot pass. Meantime the CZAR is said to be in a state of religious excitement. He has been so marvellously preserved from the consequences of an explosion operating through two solid

floors, that he considers himself to be under the special protection of Providence, and to have received a peculiar mission of indiscriminate repression. General LORIS MELIKOFF is to replace General GOURKO in the supreme command at St. Petersburg; and as Russian officials of a lower order have been found ineffectual, astute Germans are to be called in from the Baltic provinces. At the same time it is said the EMPEROR is having some mysterious edicts printed in the strictest secrecy, which are to be published on next Tuesday, the anniversary of the CZAR's accession. On the same day the Nihilists are, as they have managed to announce, going to do something extraordinary. They are in some way to illuminate St. Petersburg by way of cheering society and drawing general attention to their proceedings. Idle as all these rumours may be, they are worth noticing as illustrating the state of society in which such things are possible. Russian society seems to be in a state of utter confusion. It is not so much indignant at the explosion as puzzled by it. If it has little sympathy with the authors of the attempt, it has no belief in the Government. Those who cannot protect themselves cannot, it thinks, protect others. The CZAR may hold out for the moment, but possibly next Tuesday, or a month or two later, he may give in. No one except the CZAR seems to be in any way comforted by his religious mission. Foreigners cannot pretend to be wiser than the Russians themselves, and the Russians say they are bewildered; but, so far as outward signs go, there seems much to make it probable that the CZAR has to confront not a conspiracy, but a revolution.

It is a relief to turn from the details of social life at St. Petersburg, of which we can know extremely little, to the broad and patent facts which must determine our judgment as to the position which Russia now occupies towards other European Powers, and especially towards Germany. That Russia is meditating an attack on Germany is too absurd an assumption not to revolt the common sense of the Germans themselves. All that Russia could hope for in a war with Germany would be to enter on a defensive struggle in which, by abandoning much and undergoing extreme misery, she might hope to tire the Germans out. Such a war might be successful if the Russian nation was as it was in the days of the CZAR's grandfather, extremely patriotic and passionately devoted to its sovereign. As things are, a war with Germany would be probably even more fatal to the CZAR and his dynasty than to Russia itself. Theorists urge that the CZAR might declare war against Germany merely to give a vent to the turbulent ferocity of his subjects. He has no vent to turbulent ferocity to give in this direction. All he can do for his turbulent subjects is to invite them to show the extreme of patience and endurance under tribulation, with the prospect of this patience and endurance ultimately gaining the day. How can a CZAR for whom ruffians lay mines, who is always being shot at, whose house is full of secret, or scarcely secret, enemies, for whom a state of siege does nothing, hope to win the love and fidelity of his subjects by exposing them to such a campaign as that of 1812? Sensible Germans, seeing this, also see that Prince BISMARCK's affected alarm about a Russian attack may be merely a manoeuvre to carry his Army Bill. But, then, sensible Germans also go on to wonder why this tremendous machinery is brought into play merely to carry a modest Bill which could be carried anyhow. They cannot keep out of their minds the thought that perhaps Prince BISMARCK means more than he says, and is meditating how he may get Germany to attack Russia with some small sense of decency. This also is the thought that is filling Europe with anxiety. There can be no doubt that Europe is very anxious, and has become more anxious within the last few days. There are good judges who confidently predict that the present year will see a great European war. If the grounds of this prediction are examined, it will be found that they are obtained from an examination of the past history of Prince BISMARCK, and from the conviction which this past history inspires that no scruples would restrain him from striking Russia if he thought that the moment for striking had come, if he could catch Russia at a sufficient disadvantage, and could be sure that she would be sufficiently isolated.

It is announced that Prince Hohenlohe has left Paris, and has left it in such a way that it is taken for granted that he is not to return. The PRINCE has been one of the

most active supporters of a policy of generous kindness and good feeling towards France, and some apprehension is expressed in Paris of an intention on the part of Prince BISMARCK to replace the friendly Ambassador by one less friendly. Nominally, however, Prince Hohenlohe is only going to Berlin in order that he may take part in the debate on the Army Bill. If his duty is to state candidly what are the feelings of France in regard to war, he will have nothing to say except that France has not the remotest intention of making war, or the slightest wish to make war. The French ask for nothing but to be left alone, and to see no European questions raised that would force them to encounter risks from which they shrink. The only important foreign question with which the French Government now has to deal is that of the extradition of HARTMANN, who is said to have been a party to the plot for murdering the Czar by upsetting the train at Moscow by which he was travelling. The difficulty in which the French Government finds itself has been much increased by the threat of the Russian Ambassador that he will leave Paris if the extradition is refused. Such a threat is very unwarranted and offensive, but at any rate it might be supposed to put an end to suspicions of any dangerous intimacy between Russia and France. In Austria there is certainly no disposition for war or adventure, and the debates on the Hungarian budget show that, far from there being any willingness to wreck the national finance by ruinous military enterprise, there is a jealous disposition to cut down to the last possible florin the cost of the Bosnian occupation. Nor is there any ardour for war in Germany itself. The Germans are an essentially pacific people and do not like war. The German Emperor, too, takes every opportunity of showing that he retains all his old feelings of affection for the Russian Imperial family. But experience has only too amply shown that neither the German people nor the German Emperor can stop Prince BISMARCK when he has once decided firmly on anything. As to whether he has decided on war, speculation is vain. There are signs that point one way, and signs that point another way. One day a Ministerial paper inserts a flaming article intended to provoke and alarm Germany by pointing out that Russia is most unhandsonely fortifying her Polish frontier. The next day the same paper inserts a soothing communication, pointing out with unanswerable force that the Eastern frontier of Germany bristles with fortresses, and that Russia is as much at liberty to build her fortresses as Germany was to build hers. Next week the situation may not improbably be cleared, for Prince BISMARCK is himself to speak on the Army Bill, and he must make some exposition of his policy. Meantime Europe is in the undignified position of a culprit waiting to hear his doom. Not improbably the supreme judge of Europe will refrain from pronouncing sentence against any one, and will content himself with parading the awful powers he has at his command should he ever think it necessary to exercise them.

AFGHAN POLICY OF THE GOVERNMENT.

THE Indian Correspondents who record the changes in public opinion or in their own have retracted their complaints that the Government has not announced its Afghan policy. It would be difficult to publish a decision which it has been hitherto impossible to form; but it may be inferred from intimations given in the late debate that the policy of allowing the dissolution of the unity of the Afghan kingdom has been considered. The military difficulties have, it may be hoped, been nearly overcome. Ghuznee appears to be incapable of resisting a regular attack; and it is not certain that it will be necessary to reduce the place by force. Letters between Sir F. ROBERTS and MAHOMED JAN are said to have crossed on the road, and it may be inferred that the insurgent chief is inclined to negotiation; but he is said to have advanced the inadmissible pretension that he should meet Sir F. ROBERTS on neutral ground. It will be impossible to recognize his affectation of equality, or to allow that any Afghan territory is neutral. Until the details of the negotiation are known, the Indian Government must be supposed capable of maintaining its own dignity. No leader of high rank at present offers open resistance; for, contrary to expectation, ABDURRAHMAN seems not yet to have entered Afghan territory. The Sirdars pro-

bably differ in opinion as to the expediency of maintaining the unity of the kingdom. Some of them may perhaps prefer local independence, while others may be disposed to concur in the nomination of some real or nominal ruler. The Indian Government would recognize any Ameer who was known to represent the Afghan chiefs, on condition of his consenting to the guarantees of fidelity and deference which will necessarily be required. Any arrangement of the kind will involve many difficulties, but it is only possible to choose among conflicting embarrassments. The selection of the infant son of YAKOUB KHAN would involve the appointment of a regency, which, if it could otherwise be trusted, would involve a claim to permanent protection. No satisfactory scheme of dealing with the provincial capitals has yet been devised. The governor and chiefs of Candahar, who have thus far loyally supported the English authorities, might not be willing to recognize an Ameer reigning at Cabul; and a strong pressure is placed on the Government to retain permanent possession of Candahar. Sir H. RAWLINSON long ago recommended the occupation of the city as a better military position than Cabul. If the railway which is now in progress is completed, it is almost certain that Candahar will be, directly or indirectly, governed as an English dependency.

It is much more difficult to determine the disposal of Herat. The domestic controversy is simplified by Lord NORTHBROOK's admission that Herat cannot be allowed to pass into the possession of Russia. The Government, sharing the same conviction, is evidently hesitating among two or more modes of guarding against the danger. It would be possible to take the place by an advance from Candahar, and to hold it against foreign or domestic assailants; but the expedition would be long and costly; and there are strong objections to the maintenance of a garrison some hundreds of miles from the Indian frontier. An English force could not be spared for the purpose unless the strength of the army in India was permanently increased; and it is not desirable to strain the loyalty of native troops by compelling them to serve in distant countries and in an unfamiliar climate. From the date of the last Persian war to the death or flight of SHERE ALI, the difficulty was reduced to its lowest point by the Afghan occupation of Herat. The place is now in the hands of one or more practically independent chiefs, who might perhaps be induced to accept Russian protection. In these circumstances Sir H. RAWLINSON anticipated the Government by recommending a reversal of the former policy in which he was actively concerned. He thinks that Herat might be placed under the sovereignty of Persia on condition of an alliance which would be directed against Russia. It seems that on the Persian side no objection would be raised if only sufficient guarantees were offered against the probable effects of Russian resentment. The Northern provinces of Persia could not be defended against Russia; but Sir H. RAWLINSON observes that the Southern provinces and the sea-coast would be equally accessible to English troops. In the conflict for dominion and influence, the condition of a weak State interposed between two great Powers would not be enviable. It is not certain whether the Government may not have desired to arrange with Russia the terms on which Herat might be given over to Persia. It is certain that the scheme was first openly proposed in Russian journals, though the same writers have since felt or affected indignation at the rumour of English negotiations tending to the same result. The plan which Prince LOBANOFF is supposed to have brought with him for a general accommodation of differences between England and Russia may perhaps, if it is hereafter disclosed, throw some light on the Herat negotiations. Any such overtures, if they are made, though they must be watched with jealous vigilance, ought not to be summarily rejected. Even if it were reasonable to doubt whether Russia could be trusted to observe a formal compact, the breach of an agreement would simplify some existing complications, or, at the worst, it would remit both parties to their present positions.

Lord NORTHBROOK's declaration as to the importance of Herat was not his only contribution during last week's debate to the elucidation of the Afghan controversy. It may indeed be said that his speech offered a retrospective justification of the Duke of ARGYLL's ill-timed motion. It was wholly unnecessary to renew the exhausted controversy as to the effect on SHERE ALI's mind of the guarded

and scanty promises of support which were extracted from the Viceroy after he had been warned against undue concession by the Secretary of State. It has been again and again shown that Lord NORTHBROOK was in the first instance inclined to give comparatively strong assurances, and that the Duke of ARGYLL checked his liberality. The promises which the Viceroy made orally to the Afghan Envoy were partially revoked or restricted by his statement in a letter to the Ameer, that the matter would be most conveniently arranged at a future time. The impression produced by the letter is authentically recorded in SHERE ALI's ironical acknowledgment of the communication. He said that he was duly grateful for the undertaking to continue the policy of former Viceroys, but he added, "My friend, it was in those circumstances not worth my while to send an Envoy to Simla." The Duke of ARGYLL admits that from that time the Ameer was, as he said, sulky. According to the Government, he is more accurately described as having from 1873 been alienated from England, and inclined to court the protection of Russia. The Duke of ARGYLL forgot to redeem a pledge that he would explain his reasons for asking the Government to produce the Russian correspondence found in Cabul. On the intimation that the publication would not be for the public interest, he properly withdrew his demand; and it may be added that throughout his speech he abstained from the vituperative language which he had been tempted to employ in his book and in some former speeches. An orator of genuine eloquence has no excuse for the violence by which inferior speakers sometimes seek to escape from dullness.

Lord NORTHBROOK makes no pretension to eloquence, but his speech commanded the attention which is always paid in either House to those whose knowledge and judgment are entitled to respect. While he adhered to his former opinion that the rupture with SHERE ALI was unnecessary and injudicious, he showed that he was aware of the irrevocable nature of a completed fact. Lord NORTHBROOK approves of the maintenance of control over the frontier tribes; and he must therefore admit the necessity of holding the advanced frontier, though he would not approve of the retention of Candahar. Lord NORTHBROOK's speech, notwithstanding his antagonism to the Government, has had the effect of reminding the country that complex questions of diplomacy and war are not to be disposed of by one-sided declamation. Sir H. RAWLINSON's remarkable paper has probably promoted the growing disposition to aid and advise the Government, instead of rejoicing in its real or alleged discomfitures. His almost unqualified approval of the Treaty of Gundamak and of the conduct of both campaigns will have exercised much influence on general opinion. It is well known that Sir H. RAWLINSON has never been a political supporter of the present Ministers; but, since the partial subsidence of factious excitement, it has become intelligible that a statesman may prefer the safety of the Empire to the triumph of a party. Within a few days several Liberal members have publicly condemned the agitation which has been directed against the foreign and Indian policy of the Government, and there is no reason to suppose that the constituencies which they address are more factious than their representatives. The settlement of Afghanistan and the security of Herat have no material connexion with domestic politics; and the solution of difficult problems will not be facilitated by systematic attacks on the Government. Even if mistakes are committed, the nation is necessarily represented by its agents. Their failure may be due to their own fault, but it is the misfortune of their principal. Their reputation will largely depend on the ultimate triumph or defeat of their policy; but efforts to thwart them at every stage of the undertaking only diminish their chances of success. As it may be presumed that their most hostile critics would not urge the immediate evacuation of Afghanistan, it only remains to consider the best means of prosecuting the enterprise.

LAW REFORM.

MEASURES of Law Reform are to be the main, or it may almost be said the sole, work of the Government this Session in the sphere of legislation. The measures they propose have the merit of being really needed, well directed, and well shaped. But unfortunately

even the Government is far from sanguine as to its power of carrying what it proposes, and Parliament, although professing its usual anxiety to do its best to reform the law, also shows its usual indifference as regards subjects which it does not understand and which do not interest it. The Bankruptcy Bill alone has an almost assured prospect of becoming law. It is substantially the Bill of last Session, and has been sent to a Select Committee. An alteration in the law of Bankruptcy is urgently demanded by the mercantile community, and the Bill of the ATTORNEY-GENERAL undoubtedly remedies many of the defects of the present system. When it gets before the House the Bill is sure to be attacked on the ground that the present system is radically wrong, inasmuch as it is designed to facilitate bankruptcy. That it is a good thing in itself, provided proper precautions against fraud and collusion are taken, to give a person who cannot pay his debts quite a fresh start in the world is the assumption on which the present system is based; and this assumption will be contested, for reasons which will deserve consideration. But, when once this preliminary objection—which is one of principle—is disposed of, and Parliament decides to work on the present lines, the details of the Bill ought not to provoke any long discussion or persistent opposition. The Criminal Code has a much less hopeful future before it. In fact, the ATTORNEY-GENERAL confessed that it was idle to think of getting it passed in one Session. All he now dreams of is that, if it were cut up into little bits, some of the little bits might be passed this Session, and more little bits might be passed another Session, so that in an unknown number of years the whole might be got through. This may be unavoidable, but it is very disheartening. The ATTORNEY-GENERAL described the enormous pains which had been taken to make the draft Code as perfect as possible. One of the results of the care that has been expended is that the different parts of the Code hang together. From first to last every part is treated as part of a whole; and it is difficult to see how any of the little bits into which the Bill is to be divided can have, if isolated, anything like the value which it was meant to have by those who placed the other little bits in conjunction with it. But, when the ATTORNEY-GENERAL says that there really is no chance of the Bill being passed as a whole, there is no answer. The difficulties in his way are only too obvious. He was followed by two speakers, one on each side of the House, who contended that no Code at all was wanted. The Bill inevitably introduces many changes in the law, and these changes will be warmly opposed. Further, while the Bill does not affect Scotland it does affect Ireland, and the obstacles which national jealousies may interpose are not among the least serious which the ATTORNEY-GENERAL has to contemplate.

The CHANCELLOR on Monday night submitted to the House of Lords a long series of law reforms. Every one of these reforms deals with matters of practical importance, and is designed to further some recognized public interest. Within the limits of change which the CHANCELLOR is, from the general cast of his mind and his habits of thought, willing to accept, the measures proposed are bold, comprehensive, and effectual. They also bear the impress of the long and painful care bestowed on them, and show at once a grasp of principles and a mastery of technicalities. But measures of Law Reform submitted to the Lords by the CHANCELLOR are unhappily to be considered rather as contributions to the formation of sound opinion in the future than as anticipations of what will immediately become law. The CHANCELLOR is guiding in the right road the profession of which he is the head, and also the public so far as the public imagines itself to be capable of comprehending his views. So much he is sure of doing. As to getting the House of Commons in its last Session to trouble itself about the twenty heads of justifiable improvement at which the CHANCELLOR, after an exhaustive study has arrived, that is probably nothing more than a beautiful dream. But the chief of the CHANCELLOR's measures is one so moderate, so justly conceived, and so very advantageous to the public, that even the House of Commons in its present exhausted and prostrated state might possibly be persuaded to spare for it a little of the time which would otherwise be wasted. The aim of the measure, briefly stated, is to make the tenant for life of land the full owner for the purposes of sale, and for the purposes of long leasing. He is to be able to dispose of

his estate as if he really owned it. The land that would come into the market if he were the unrestricted owner, the houses that would be built, the mines that would be opened, may come into the market, be built, or opened, although he is merely the tenant for life. This is only an extension—although an extension equally bold and salutary—of recognized principles of English law. The general principle of English law is that land is to be looked on like any other property. It may be tied up to the same extent, but no more; it may be settled and given by will exactly as Consols may be settled or given. The one exceptional difference is in the case of intestate succession. But English law also recognizes that the public is interested in the mode in which land is held. Precautions of an almost excessive scrupulosity guard against land coming too easily into what is technically known as the "dead hand"; and measures have already been passed with the object of enabling the trustees of settlements to sell land of which they are the nominal owners. But trustees, although they may sell, are generally not at all inclined to sell. It is not their shoe that is pinched by land not being sold. It is the tenant for life that longs to sell one part of his estate so that he may improve another part; who wants to see houses built or mines opened on his land; who feels the weight of charges in times of distress; or who longs to escape from the precarious dignity of an impoverished landowner into the sweet, unostentatious repose enjoyed by the holder of Three per Cents. To substitute the tenant for life who wishes to do something for trustees who wish to do nothing, and at the same time to give him powers which trustees rarely possess, is the simple but most commendable object of the CHANCELLOR'S measure.

The new position of the tenant for life is of course to be hedged round by some necessary safeguards. Under existing settlements the consent of the Chancery Division will be necessary. Under future settlements the tenant for life is to be at liberty to sell if his trustees do not object; if they object, he can appeal to the Court. He will not be able unless in very exceptional cases to sell the family mansion-house. When his land is sold, the proceeds of the sale will be kept in Consols, or in other securities permitted by the settlement, unless other land is bought or improvements falling under one of the twenty specified heads are to be made on some portion of the land that remains in settlement or has been brought under it. These are minor details, and only need notice to show how carefully all the consequences of the main principle being accepted have been thought out and worked out by those who framed the Bill. It is the general results of the measure that claim attention, and these results are that a large amount of land will be marketable which now is not marketable, that another large amount of land which is not sold will be greatly improved, and that the person who seems to the world to be the owner of an estate will feel himself to be the owner, and will be able seriously to consider how he may best improve the position of himself and his family. This, however, is not the only measure of the CHANCELLOR which will have an important bearing on the character of land as a marketable commodity. He has ventured to suggest a revolution in conveyancing. To make English deeds at once simple and effectual is a very arduous task, but it is one to fulfil which the CHANCELLOR thinks the mind of man is perhaps not unequal. But then, if deeds are to be short and intelligible, how are solicitors to live? By paying them, the CHANCELLOR answers, not according to the length of deeds, but according to the real services they render. If the client knows that the cost of conveyance will amount to a fixed sum according to the value of the land conveyed, he will be very happy, and his solicitor, if he gets as much money, will be no more unhappy than he is now. There is nothing new in this suggestion. What is new is that a Chancellor should make it. Experts have long been aware that the proper method of paying solicitors lay at the root of all reforms in the language of conveyancing; but this reform has got into the region of possibility now that a Chancellor has determined by a Bill how solicitors shall be paid. A fourth measure limits the time in which actions may be brought, and it would no doubt be a considerable convenience if claims of the ordinary kind could not be brought after three years had expired, instead of the period being, as now, fixed at six years. But although this may be a good hint in a small

way for future legislation, still the two chief aims of the CHANCELLOR—that of putting the tenant for life in, or very nearly in, the position of the full owner, for all the purposes of selling or improving land, and that of substituting ordinary English for the curious language of conveyancing, through adopting the right method of paying solicitors—must be retained in the memory as the really prominent parts of Lord CAIRNS'S scheme of law reform.

THE INDIAN BUDGET.

OPPOSITION orators committed an unfortunate error in tactics when they selected Indian finance as an illustration of the incapacity, or at any rate the ill success, of the present rulers of the country. Hardly had the plaudits of Midlothian audiences died away, when the secret escaped that, so far as an English Ministry can claim credit or deserve blame in respect of the revenues of India, the Government were in a position to give an unanswerable reply to hostile criticism. The results now officially declared show that the Finance Minister was speaking well within the mark when, a few weeks ago, he asserted his conviction of the substantial soundness of the position. "I feel satisfied," Sir JOHN STRACHEY said, "that India will be able to bear her own proper burdens. I see much that is encouraging and satisfactory in the condition and prospects of her finances, and no cause whatever for despondency." We now know the grounds of this cheerful language. Not only is it not true that India is bankrupt, or on the eve of becoming so, but she is shown to be in possession of resources which place her, as regards solvency, in an exceptionally high position among the nations of the world. During the last four years she has been exposed to a combination of troubles serious enough to explain prolonged embarrassment. Famines have involved an expenditure of ten millions, the fall in exchange has cost eleven millions more, the Afghan war another four millions; at the same time the widely-extended and long-continued distress in the South of India seriously affected several important branches of revenue and checked the natural development of trade. Above all these difficulties, however, the Indian Exchequer rises triumphant. Instead of a deficit of nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions, which was anticipated last spring, the present financial year closes with a surplus of 119,000*l.*, after every ordinary expense has been met and $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions have been devoted to war, and more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions to strategical railways. The realized result has, in fact, improved on the estimate to the extent of five millions. Nor is this the windfall of a single lucky year. In 1880-1 Sir JOHN STRACHEY hopes to end with a surplus of 417,000*l.*, after spending 2 millions on the war and $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions on strategical railways, thus providing another surplus on normal expenditure of the year of $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions, making a total surplus for the two years little short of ten millions.

It is true that these agreeable results depend in no small degree on causes which are beyond control. No one can do more than make a rough guess at the profits on the sale of opium, which this year has helped the Indian exchequer to the extent of nearly two millions beyond the expected figure. The course of exchange, too, defies calculation; and the million which has been saved by the improvement of this year's rates might easily have had to be entered on the other side of the account. The improvement of half a million in land revenue and 362,000*l.* in salt is more satisfactory, as attesting, in unmistakable language, the recovery of the famine-stricken populations from the depression produced by their long trial. The saving of 660,000*l.* on public works, and the reduction of the annual outlay in future years under this head to $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions, must be regarded with less unqualified satisfaction. The retrenchment has, it is well known, been forced on the Government by the agitation of which Mr. FAWCETT is the most conspicuous promoter, and is that part of the existing arrangements from which it is probable that the improved position will be first utilized to effect an escape. As Sir JOHN STRACHEY observed, the curtailment has materially checked the efforts of the Indian Government to protect the country from famine by the construction of cheap railways and canals. The real position and prospects of these undertakings are but imperfectly understood by the English public and the amateur exponents of Indian affairs who profess to instruct it. But the Report of the East India Public Works Committee last autumn placed beyond all reasonable

doubt the conclusion that the scheme of outlay on productive public works, on which the Government of India has for some years past been engaged, was judiciously framed in the first instance and has more than realized the expectations of its founders. The Committee found that, whereas 94 millions had been laid out on railways in 1872, with the result of an annual loss in interest of 2,324,000*l.*, the development has been such that, in 1877-78, 114 millions had been laid out with a resulting gain to Government of 65,000*l.*, instead of a loss of nearly 2 millions for which the forecast provided. Of the 17½ millions laid out in works of irrigation, 5½ millions had been invested in works which were sufficient to earn a net surplus of half a million for the Government, besides interest and working expenses. The remaining works, amounting to 10 millions of capital, are in many instances undeveloped or even still under construction; and at present they fall short by 421,000*l.* of paying the accruing interest on their capital. Here, however, as with the railways, there is not the least ground for doubting that the money has been wisely invested, and that the scheme will ultimately prove as remunerative to the State as it has already proved to the landholders. As interruption and delay in a well-conceived project necessarily occasion additional expense, and as in the present instance the postponement involves also the prolonged exposure of large parts of the country to the horrors of famine, it is a matter of regret that ill-considered and ignorant criticism should so far have prevailed over the mature results of experience and foresight as to arrest the completion of many half-finished undertakings, and postpone to an indefinite future many others which, from every point of view, commercial no less than philanthropic, were full of promise. Mr. HYNDMAN, and those who join with him in exulting over the curtailment of Indian public works, would probably be startled to learn that the necessary result of this change of policy is that the protection of the people of India from famine is appreciably further from attainment than it might otherwise have been.

The abolition of the insignificant export duties on lakh and indigo, amounting to 54,000*l.*, is of importance only as a pledge of the continued efforts of the Indian Government in the direction of fiscal reform. India has now swept her tariff clear of every export duty except that on rice, which is justified by the circumstance that Indian rice has a practical monopoly in the English market, and that the exporting districts are among the most prosperous in the country. The changes in the cotton duties effected last spring, however open to criticism on the score of inopportune, have at any rate resulted in a material addition to the clothing of the population; and the dissentient members of the VICEROY'S Council will probably, under existing circumstances, cease to lament the failure of their endeavour to benefit a small class of mill-owners at the expense of the entire community. Though no further extension of Free-trade policy is conceded during the present year, the Government of India is pledged to lose no opportunity of reducing an impost which, from an Indian no less than an English view, is open to serious objection. In the meantime there is no room for doubting that the millions of India are already reaping the benefit of unrestricted commerce in the cheaper and more abundant supply of a prime necessity of existence. There is every reason to hope that the general improvement of revenue may eventually render the Indian Government altogether independent of Customs duties. Among other projected economies is the reform of the present obsolete, cumbrous and meaningless system of provincial Commanders-in-chief. The Army Commission, Sir JOHN STRACHEY informs us, has suggested a saving of 1½ million in this and other forms of military extravagance.

The results of the present Budget of course amply justify the policy initiated two years ago for increasing the annual revenues of India sufficiently to provide for occasional outlay on famine relief. The programme has been satisfactorily carried out, notwithstanding the exceptional difficulties of the last two years. In 1877-8 half a million was expended on famine, and a surplus of 1,300,000*l.* provided for investment in productive public works, thereby reducing in a corresponding amount the sum which would otherwise have been borrowed on this account. In 1879-80 the prospect of a still more serious fall in exchange imposed on the Government the necessity of providing additional funds more than equivalent to the proceeds of the recently imposed taxation. Pending the arrange-

ments for meeting this new difficulty, it became true that "the insurance provided against future famine had "virtually ceased to exist"—an unfortunate phrase, which has been the subject of no little misconception. The necessary retrenchments, however, were speedily carried out, and the prescribed margin of income over expenditure was re-established. Meantime, unexpected improvements in the position occurred, and the result has been a surplus far in excess of anything which the Government had pledged itself to provide, or which could reasonably have been suggested as necessary. No country—certainly no country so poor as India—can be expected to carry on war, provide strategical railways, and, at the same time, to show a surplus of something like five millions per annum on its normal income. Under the circumstances the question most pressing on the Finance Minister must be as to the direction in which it is most expedient to afford relief to the taxpayer. No one can doubt the wisdom of saving two millions of comparatively petty traders from the annoyance of direct taxation, the aggregate profits of which were only 340,000*l.*; nor need we grudge the official and professional classes their escape from the privilege of contributing to an overflowing exchequer. Englishmen—always excepting that class of politicians which has become conspicuous for its contempt of all but party considerations—will rejoice in the ascertained prosperity of England's greatest dependency, in the close of a period of anxiety and suffering to vast multitudes of mankind, and in the effectual refutation of gloomy forebodings now shown to be nothing more than the chimeras of insufficient information and superficial thought. The VICEROY and his extremely able Finance Minister may alike be congratulated on a page of Indian history in which not even Liberal partisanship will be able to find material for censure.

BREACH OF PRIVILEGE.

ALTHOUGH the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER perhaps erred in judgment when he pressed his resolution on breach of privilege after Mr. PLIMSOLL's apology, the subsequent attempt to reduce the decision of the House to an absurdity was utterly futile. Sir W. HARCOURT on both occasions committed a graver mistake than that of which he accused Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE. It is true that, as he suggested, Parliamentary privilege is vague and elastic, and liable to be impaired by formal definition; but it scarcely follows that it ought never to be invoked, or that the offences denounced by Mr. SULLIVAN were in the smallest degree analogous to Mr. PLIMSOLL's interference with Parliamentary freedom. Obsolete precedents may be found to support the proposition that attacks on members are necessarily breaches of privilege; but, as modern political controversy consists to a great extent of vituperation of opponents, it is impossible to call orators or journalists to account for their compliance with the prevalent custom. When a Conservative orator at a public meeting had the bad taste to call the Home Rule members a gang of rebels, Mr. SULLIVAN, though he might justly be offended, would probably not have brought the attack under the notice of the House of Commons, except by way of retaliation for Sir S. NORTHCOTE's motion. Another Irish member proposed that half a dozen leading articles should be read at the table, though they would have been equivalent to as many more or less effective speeches against obstruction. Mr. SULLIVAN committed a blunder in protesting against the attendance of a peer at a meeting called, amongst other objects, in promotion of the interests of certain Parliamentary candidates. The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER, by a happy slip of the tongue, defended the conduct of Lord ROSEBURY; and he might have referred to a vehement speech delivered at Leeds by the Duke of ARGYLL in support of two Liberal candidates for the neighbouring division of the West Riding. Mr. SULLIVAN and his friends were not denounced as rebels for the purpose of impeding their action in the House of Commons, but by way of general dislike, and consequent abuse. Many of them habitually use language not less violent when they have occasion to comment on English statesmen, on Irish landlords, or on the other numerous objects of their patriotic animosity. A higher authority may be quoted in vindication of the right of invective. Mr.

GLADSTONE never makes a speech without describing the Ministers, who are all members of one or the other House of Parliament, as criminals at least as bad as rebels; but none of his victims appeal to privilege against his conscientious conviction that it is sinful to differ from himself. As he says in his lately published letter, "The first and highest of all tests to be applied to a National Church is its tendency to promote a sound moral opinion, or what we"—that is, Mr. GLADSTONE and those who agree with him—"think to be so." It is perhaps a breach of privilege to consider the policy of the majority of the House of Commons as incompatible with sound morality.

Both Mr. SULLIVAN and his friendly opponent, Sir W. HARCOURT, intended to propound the more than questionable doctrine that the House ought either to assert its privileges on all occasions, or cease to exercise any check on the license of its members or of strangers. On both occasions Sir W. HARCOURT moved the same amendment, to the effect that the House saw no cause to take further proceedings. The resolution may perhaps have been in both instances judiciously framed; but the arguments by which it was supported went too far, and the comparison between Mr. PLIMSOLL's placards and the speeches at the Chelsea meeting was thoroughly misleading. Freedom of debate and independence in legislation are not menaced by the speeches of Mr. GLADSTONE and Mr. BRIGHT, nor by the rival extravagance of humbler speakers on the other side. A direct appeal to the constituents of a member against his conduct in relation to a pending Bill is an interference with the freedom of the House of Commons. In times of excitement such placards as Mr. PLIMSOLL's might not improbably cause personal danger to the supporters of an unpopular measure or amendment. A mob would not recognize its own ridiculous incompetence to judge whether a Bill ought or ought not to come on as unopposed after a certain hour in the night. The debate which has since taken place on Lord SANDON's motion to refer Mr. PLIMSOLL's Bill to a Select Committee furnishes an additional illustration of the necessity of guarding against the repetition of similar irregularities. It may well have been on the whole expedient to accept a retraction as a sufficient settlement of the question; but Sir W. HARCOURT's contention that the placards were no more censurable than an ordinary party speech was wholly erroneous.

Parliament will be well advised in retaining all the means of defence which have been provided at different times in contemplation of varying circumstances. Even the power of prohibiting the publication of reports of debates might in possible contingencies be useful; and in the meantime a rusty weapon does no harm while it hangs on the wall. It is to be regretted that modern ingenuity has not devised a remedy against the opposite risk of the suppression of reports. It would perhaps not be possible to summon to the bar of the House publishers of morning papers in which the summaries of speeches were fuller than the reports. Against more positive interference with the supremacy of Parliament, privilege and the penalties by which it is enforced will probably afford sufficient protection. There is no sufficient reason against relinquishing a few definite and personal privileges which were once necessary for the protection of members. Two hundred years ago it was not impossible that a member might be arrested on the pretence of debt for the purpose of preventing him from joining in an obnoxious vote. As debtors can now only be imprisoned after a contumacious refusal to pay a just debt, it is unnecessary to continue an obnoxious, though insignificant, exemption. The peer who some time since refused with impunity to pay a small coal bill cannot be said to have represented the usual practice of his order. It is remarkable that in England members of Parliament have never claimed relief from liability to criminal prosecution. Continental Assemblies have in general a right to give or withhold their assent to the prosecution of their members. At the present time two Socialist representatives are claiming the protection of the German Parliament against political prosecutions. It was not necessary to ask the consent of the House of Commons when O'CONNELL was prosecuted for sedition five-and-thirty years ago. Although party feeling then ran high, the Opposition never affected to believe that the object of the Government was to exclude a formidable adversary from Parliament. It matters little whether the privilege is maintained or sur-

rendered. Obstinate defendants in County Courts are not likely to feel as a practical grievance the possible avoidance of imprisonment by one of their number who might happen to have a seat in Parliament. It seems strange that, while serious legislation is at a standstill, time can be found for the discussion of such trifles as the exemption of members from arrest.

As long as no interference with Parliamentary legislation or business is attempted, the characters of Ministers and members of the Opposition must take care of themselves, except in cases where protection is afforded under the law of libel; yet it would be imprudent in either House to renounce the right of dealing by its own authority with attacks which threatened its independence. Even the most sweeping charges against the whole House must be borne with equanimity. The present Parliament has been more than once informed by Mr. GLADSTONE, Mr. CHAMBERLAIN, and others that it is the most servile and corrupt which has been known in England since the days of WALPOLE, or from a much earlier period. The House of Commons has not been terrified by oburgation, and apparently it has in no respect changed its course. The Government still commands the support of its original majority, and some Liberals are disposed to condone its unexampled crimes. If agitators exchanged vague abuse for appeals to physical force, it would be necessary to resort to the comprehensive armoury of privilege. Politicians of Sir W. HARCOURT's rank, whose influence in the country is the honourable result of their position in the House of Commons, are not well advised in exposing to odium or ridicule the latent resources of Parliamentary authority. It was scarcely legitimate to taunt Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE with his alleged encouragement of Mr. SULLIVAN's contrivance for wasting time. It has been shown that there was no analogy between the breach of privilege which had been recorded and censured by the House and the out-of-door speeches which were supposed to move Mr. SULLIVAN's indignation. A much slighter excuse would have sufficed for the interruption of serious business. The innumerable amendments and debates on the Irish Relief Bill were not provoked by any proceeding with reference to privilege. It may be admitted that questions of privilege should not be lightly or frequently raised. Parliamentary leaders always wisely discourage demands made by sensitive members for the punishment of journalists who may have treated them with disrespect. When there has been a real interference with the freedom of debate or with the exercise of the functions of Parliament, the offence ought not to be treated with levity. Abuse of the forms of the House by its own members is an offence of an entirely different character from breach of privilege. The internal dangers by which the House of Commons is threatened are by far the most serious; but it is also proper and prudent to provide against external encroachment, and especially against attempts to transfer legislative power from Parliament to any section of the community.

M. ROUHER ON FREE TRADE.

THE reception given to M. ROUHER's speech on the Tariff Bill by the Chamber of Deputies might read more than one lesson to French parties if they were in the mood to listen to any lesson. So far as their adversaries are concerned, triumphant majorities are usually Sadducees. They believe that there is no such thing as a political resurrection. But whenever their adversaries are worth anything, it usually turns out in the end that defeat and destruction are not at all the same thing. Nothing could seem more hopeless than the position of the Bonapartists after Sedan, and yet since then they have had two revivals and two reverses. Under Marshal MACMAHON they obtained for a time something like the supreme control of affairs, and though this was lost by the breakdown of the attempt of the 16th May, the blow fell more heavily upon the Royalists than upon the Imperialists. The Duke of BROGLIE came in for a far larger measure of unpopularity than M. DE FOURTOU, though it is probable that M. DE FOURTOU had done more to deserve the lion's share. The steady advance of the Republic in the direction of Radicalism had done much to revive Bonapartist prospects, when they were again clouded by the death of Prince LOUIS NAPOLEON. Perhaps the belief that M. ROUHER, at all events, has been rendered harmless by this disaster may have had some-

thing to do with the attention paid to him on Saturday and Monday. It is more probable, however, that this attention was a genuine tribute to his great knowledge of the subject, and a half-unconscious admission that on the material prosperity of France a Bonapartist has a right to be listened to. Little as NAPOLEON III. knew how to turn national prosperity to account, there can be no question that the country did make immense progress under his rule, and that the secret of this progress lay in the sound views which he and his advisers entertained of the causes which make a nation prosperous. By a large number of Frenchmen this fact will always be set against the many vices of the Second Empire, and if the Republic is not careful to study the causes of national prosperity with equal zeal and equal success, this fact will undoubtedly be held in time to outweigh those vices. The truth is that the Bonapartists when in power have shown themselves the least vindictive of French parties. They have done all that they thought necessary, and often far more than was really necessary, to keep power in their own hands; but they have not yielded in anything like the same degree as either Royalists or Republicans to the peculiarly French desire to trample on a fallen enemy. The consequence is that they have had time and thought to spare for other things. The Republicans, unfortunately, have their attention so much taken up with the imposition of what they hold to be necessary disabilities on the Church that they cannot always give the necessary care to purely secular considerations. Some grand question of principle is constantly turning up, and the Republican Government has at once to put aside its proper work in order to devise a new bridle for the clergy or the religious orders. Many of M. ROUHER's readers will sigh as they remember how seldom such speeches as his are heard now. Imports and exports, manufactures and raw materials—these, they will say, are the words we should like to hear continually from our representatives. As it is, they are much more occupied in proving to us that, when they shut up the schools to which we wish to send our children, they are promoting liberty of education. It may be a long time before such comparisons injure a fairly strong Government, but they do tend to injure it. They alienate the classes which are the natural supports of every established Government—the classes which, if the Government is only decently prudent, have everything to lose by change. After all, it is by their care for the material interests of their subjects that Governments will ordinarily be judged. They may have higher qualities than this, but none which come so frequently before their subjects' eyes, or which live so long in their subjects' memories. The persistence shown by NAPOLEON III. in setting free the trade of France in the teeth of the Liberal Opposition wins elections for the BONAPARTES twenty years after the occasion on which it was most prominently displayed.

M. ROUHER's line of argument was very much the same as that taken by Mr. BOURKE in the late debate on Mr. WHEELHOUSE's motion. All the signs of prosperity which on the Protectionist showing ought to be wanting are obtrusively present. If the Commercial Treaty has been so disastrous to French trade, the traces of its mischievous influence ought to be visible in every department whether of commerce or industry. There should be less money saved, less money made by the railways which live in part by the carriage of goods, less money paid to the State in taxes. Under all these heads the evidence of facts goes the other way. The deposits which represent the surplus wealth of the population have increased. The earnings of the railway Companies, which represent either the business which produces wealth or the uses to which it is put when produced, have increased. The produce of the succession duties, which best of all represent realized property, has increased. These are the facts which constitute the indirect proof of M. ROUHER's case; and, besides these, there is the direct proof yielded by the actual figures which show what trade was before the Commercial Treaty, and what it has become since. When French manufacturers complain that they stand in need of more protection, they do not consider what the reduction of the protection they formerly enjoyed has brought them in. In 1856 the value of raw materials imported was 727,000,000 francs; in 1876 it was 2,185,000,000 francs. Why was all this additional raw material brought into the country? Not to lie idle in docks and warehouses, but to be used for purposes of

manufacture. If the cotton industry, the wool industry, the silk industry, had been reduced to such straits as the protectionists contend, why did they go on paying more and more every year for raw materials, and where did they find the money they paid? In the textile industries alone, the value of the whole import of raw materials of every kind is nearly doubled by the process of manufacture, and this represents but part of the gain which has accrued to French trade. M. ROUHER had even a more telling piece of evidence to produce in the fact that France exports 700,000,000 francs more to European markets than England exports. She is able, that is, to beat the very country in whose interest, according to the protectionists, the Commercial Treaty was made.

Of course these figures will not convince the protectionist agitators. They do not look at Protection as a whole and at Free-trade as a whole, and set the results of the two systems against one another. Their plan is to accept the good results of Free-trade as part of the order of nature, but to regard its drawbacks as entirely due to the cruel action of the Government. The increase in the import of raw materials seems to them nothing to the purpose. They have lived, and in order to live they must of course have had raw materials to work up for their livelihood. What annoys them is that, if there had been protective duties on their manufactures, they might have worked up these raw materials at a much greater profit. They would not have needed, as now, to lower their prices in order to avoid being undersold by the foreigner. They might have undersold the foreigner and kept up their prices at the same time. A man who thinks that he ought to have made threepence on a penny is not comforted by being reminded that he has made twopence. He regards the threepence as the legitimate return for his labour, and holds that in getting only twopence he has been defrauded of half his profits. Even when M. ROUHER dwells on the place which France holds by the side of England in the European markets, he carries no consolation to the manufacturers. They only feel that, but for the Commercial Treaty, they might have been equally in advance of England in the European markets, and still more in advance of her in the French market. What they want in fact is that they should not only drive a good trade at home and abroad, but that their fellow-countrymen should be taxed to support them into the bargain. It is really nothing less than an impudent assertion of their own supreme importance to the society in which they live. We can only make a living profit, they say, under the Commercial Treaty, and we want you to abolish the Treaty, and to tax yourselves freely, in order to enable us to make more than a living profit. The English consumer has learnt to weigh this argument at its true value, and there are signs that the French consumer is about to follow his example.

PARLIAMENTARY SMALL TALK.

THERE is no time at which the contrast between the House of Commons as it is and the House of Commons as it was becomes more disagreeably apparent than in such debates as those of Tuesday last. Great questions will still call forth weighty arguments, but the faculty which small subjects used to possess of doing the same thing seems entirely lost. The peculiar power which Sir GEORGE LEWIS used to exercise has descended to no one. The effect of the change is mischievous in two ways. For one thing, it deprives members of valuable training. There are many men who might usefully contribute to small discussions who cannot take part to any good purpose in larger subjects. We all know, to our cost, the kind of speeches which too often come from the back benches on both sides when the foreign policy of the Government is under consideration. Hashed mutton is all very well in its place, but that place is not in immediate succession to the hot joint. Yet this is exactly the effect produced when an injudicious selection from the weakest points of a speech by a Cabinet Minister or a leader of Opposition is served up as soon as the first speaker has sat down. On such an occasion as last Tuesday, the most commonplace member has at least a chance of being original. He may have really thought out a subject for himself, or he may have special knowledge about it to communicate. For another thing, small subjects sometimes grow into great ones, and when men have been taught to speak carefully on them in the first stage, they

will be more likely to vote intelligently on them in the last stage. Neither of these advantages is likely to be realized when no really good speaker takes part in a debate. The whole affair has lost its interest, and in losing its interest it loses everything that made it useful.

Either of the motions which were before the House of Commons on Tuesday would have given Sir GEORGE LEWIS the precise opportunity he liked. Mr. BLAKE's proposal to abolish the privilege of immunity from arrest now enjoyed by members of Parliament was of little practical importance; but it might have been made the occasion of much interesting speculation on the relation between members and their constituents. The question has long since lost the constitutional importance which may have belonged to it in days when, but for this immunity, obnoxious members of Parliament might have been constantly undergoing arrest for imaginary debts at the instance of imaginary creditors. The issue raised by Mr. LEWIS's amendment was more important than that of a member's protection against an inconvenience which is rarely inflicted on any one. What ought to be the effect on a member's position of bankruptcy, or of those arrangements with creditors which in the majority of cases take the place of bankruptcy? Supposing that bankruptcy constitutes no disability in the opinion of a man's constituents, ought it to constitute one in the opinion of the House of Commons? To what extent are constituents the sole judges of their representative's qualifications? These may be easy questions enough to answer in a particular case, but they are not at all easy questions to answer generally. Yet they have a bearing even upon such pressing matters as the method of dealing with obstruction. If Sir STAFFORD NORTHGOTE's rule is adopted, the House of Commons will be armed with power to say that the representative of this or that constituency shall neither speak nor vote until he has been reconciled to the House he has offended. It would have done members no harm if their ideas upon this question had been cleared up by a good preliminary debate on the not wholly dissimilar question raised by Mr. LEWIS.

The other subject was one of greater interest, though its interest was not derived from the speeches made in the debate. The question of the duration of Parliaments has naturally received unusual prominence from the approach of a dissolution, and Mr. HOLMS and Mr. COWEN have persuaded themselves that the country would be benefited by a more frequent appeal to the electors. A good deal of their reasoning seems to rest on the alleged divergence between the present House of Commons and its constituents. If Parliament sat for five years instead of seven, they contend that the spectacle they are now compelled to witness of a Liberal majority in the country being represented by a Conservative majority in Parliament would be spared them. Of course a very complete change may take place in the feeling of the electors between the meeting of one Parliament and the meeting of the next. But neither Mr. HOLMS nor Mr. COWEN succeeded in showing that quinquennial Parliaments would constitute any safeguard against this possibility. Public opinion might conceivably swing completely round in the course of the first Session of a new Parliament, and in that case the grievance of having to wait four years for the election which would set things right would not be appreciably less than the grievance of having to wait six years. In point of fact, the only complete remedy for this evil would be annual Parliaments, unless indeed it were thought better to institute a system of monthly or weekly votes in each constituency, with the view of determining whether they wished to have a new election before the end of the year. A still more perfect system perhaps would be for each constituency to elect every week a Committee which should have power to give the member notice to quit at the end of the month. In this way elections might be going on all the year round, and Parliament would be reduced to a state of permanent dissolution. The serious answer to this part of Mr. HOLMS's case is that, if public opinion has undergone a complete change, it rarely fails to manifest itself so unmistakably as either to provoke the Government to dissolve or to prevent them from undertaking any serious legislation. Members who wish to stand well with their constituents—and no member who intends to offer himself for re-election is altogether superior to this weakness—are very quick at finding out when the opinion of the electors has swung round; and English Cabinets are seldom desperate enough to risk

hopeless exclusion from office after the election by using the last remnants of their power in a way which they know to be distasteful to those from whom it is derived.

The argument that the last Session of a Parliament is usually marked by a general weakening of the leaders' authority on both sides of the House, and by an almost ostentatious desire to curry favour with the electors in whose hands a member's fate will soon rest, is perfectly sound. But it makes directly against any diminution of the Parliamentary term. The really important consideration from this point of view is that no Parliament should be suffered to run out its natural course. Within certain limits, the Government must of course choose its own time for a dissolution, but it is desirable that this time should not be fixed beforehand. The shorter the time for which a Parliament is elected the greater is the probability that it will be allowed to live out its time. Elections being necessarily frequent, a feeling easily grows up against multiplying them without just cause. If Parliaments were triennial, it might be predicted with tolerable confidence that, as a general rule, elections would be triennial also; and, in so far as the substitution of five years for seven had any influence in the matter, it would be in the same direction. But as regards efficiency of legislation—which, after all, is one of the objects for which Parliament exists—any change which shortened Parliaments would be a change for the worse. In the first year of a Parliament members have hardly settled into their places; in the last year they are taken up with speculations whether they will be able to keep them. There remain only the intermediate years, which under a quinquennial system would at most be three. Upon any long course of years the substitution of three years out of five, instead of five out of seven, as the working residuum of each Parliament would effect a considerable subtraction from the available total. Considering the yearly increasing tasks that Parliament has to get through, and the yearly decreasing faculty of getting through them that Parliament displays, very much stronger arguments should be adduced for the change than any contained in Mr. COWEN's job lot of inappropriate historical parallels.

DEAN STANLEY'S MAUSOLEUM.

ON Tuesday last the Dean of WESTMINSTER undertook to defend the intended erection of a statue of Prince LOUIS NAPOLEON in what the world in general knows as HENRY VII.'s Chapel in Westminster, but what the DEAN prefers to call the Royal Mausoleum appended to the Abbey. It is not always given to artists to know their own best work, and it is possible that the DEAN may overrate the merit of the speech he then delivered. That he thinks highly of it may be inferred from his regret that there were not more people to listen to it. Were there not 5,200 signers of the memorial, he seemed to say; but where are the 5,199? Why am I left face to face with Mr. FORDHAM, and with Mr. FORDHAM alone? The DEAN seemingly had the prayer of St. CHRYSOSTOM in his mind; for he made it pretty evident that, had there been no one present but Mr. FORDHAM, he should not have delivered his discourse. Happily for the public, a deputation from the Workman's International Peace Association had paid a visit to the DEAN at the same time. What this Association had specially to do with the matter in hand is not very clear; but they, at all events, formed what the DEAN not very graciously described as "a kind of" audience. As no nearer approach to a real audience was then to be had, the DEAN consented to make the best of things, and proceeded to put the deputation and Mr. FORDHAM in possession of the reasons which have led him to decline the prayer of the memorial. They are of so miscellaneous a character that it will perhaps be best to take them in the order in which they were stated.

The first seems a little self-contradictory. The DEAN distrusts large petitions; but this did not prevent him from finding fault with this one because it is not large enough. "Out of about eight millions of the 'adult population of the Empire, 5,200 have signed the memorial, and out of the adult female population 'of about nine millions, three individuals appear to 'have signed it.' It does not seem to us that an objection to the erection of a statue of a foreign prince in an English church which is shared by more than five thou-

sand representative Englishmen is quite so undeserving of attention as the DEAN thinks. It is fair to say, however, that the DEAN denies that the signatures are representative. From this point of view the number of the signatures goes, he considers, for very little; everything turns on their weight. It is distressing to learn that the DEAN has formed a very low estimate of the assistant-masters of public schools. He had noticed, he said, a remarkable number of signatures of this class, and he places this remark in most suspicious contiguity to the statement that "it is not his opinion that an educated man ought to be influenced by the opinion of the uneducated." Assuming then that, as regards public schools, only the head-masters can be regarded as educated, the DEAN points out that only the name of one head-master, the Head-Master of Marlborough, has appeared among the signatures. Oxford and Cambridge contribute no more than one professor each. There is one Nonconformist minister and one clergyman of the Church of England. Seeing Mr. CARLYLE's name, not in Mr. CARLYLE's handwriting, the DEAN jumped to the conclusion that an unworthy trick had been attempted. It now appears that Mr. CARLYLE's name was attached to the memorial at his expressed request. The names of all "the great lights in science" are absent, the ASTRONOMER ROYAL not, in the DEAN's opinion, falling under that designation. The addition of Mr. FREEMAN's name to the signatures the DEAN evidently considered a positive drawback. He should have known, he says, that that name would be on any memorial relating to Westminster Abbey. This suggests that the DEAN thinks the knowledge of the history of Westminster Abbey rather a disqualification than otherwise for signing a memorial in relation to it. Probably it is not a disqualification which attaches to any of those who originally asked him to accept the statue.

After enumerating his reasons for thinking nothing of the authors of the memorial, the DEAN went on to give his reasons for not acceding to the prayer of it. He is asked to withdraw his consent to the erection of a statue to Prince LOUIS NAPOLEON; how can he do this when he gave that consent originally "from considerations of what was due to the traditions of the Abbey and to the best interests of the English people"? The traditions of the Abbey seem to resolve themselves into one—the erection of a statue to the Duke of MONTPEISIER, the brother of LOUIS PHILIPPE. But the Duke of MONTPEISIER was actually buried in the Abbey, which goes for something, and the circumstances of his exile were altogether different from those of Prince LOUIS NAPOLEON's exile. At that time the cause of the BOURBONS was generally accepted by the English people as their own cause. They were at war with NAPOLEON I., and they did not in the least care whether the French took offence at the erection of the statue or not. In the case of Prince LOUIS, the Government of France is a friendly Government, and when the pretensions of an exile are in necessary and constant opposition to the very existence of that Government, it is alike prudent and decent not to give those pretensions anything that may be twisted into a public recognition. How the best interests of the English people are to be promoted by the statue the DEAN did not say. The only explanation that occurs to us is that he looks on its erection as making friends of the mammon of unrighteousness. The BONAPARTES may some day again be rulers of France, and it may then serve the best interests of the English people that they should have been civil to one of their number when the family was in its low estate. Whether the present head of the family is likely to be specially drawn to us by this act of respect to his cousin may perhaps be doubtful, but the DEAN thinks it best to be on the safe side.

If we understand the DEAN rightly, he is tempted to regret that so many Englishmen eminent in art, literature, or science have been buried in the Abbey or the adjacent cloisters. He would rather have their room than their company. The public interest, even of the humblest classes, in the graves of MARY Queen of Scots and of the two Princes murdered in the Tower far exceeds that with which they view the graves of Sir ISAAC NEWTON or of PITT and FOX. If this is a reason for multiplying monuments to princes, it would clearly have been better not to waste any of the necessarily limited space at the disposal of a Dean of Westminster in burying Englishmen eminent in art, literature, or science. From the point of view of popular interest they are mere cumberers of the ground.

Every English prince without exception might have had a tomb in the Abbey, and the bodies of a few of the less esteemed members of foreign royal families might have been obtained to fill up vacancies. We hope that the DEAN will not think us wanting in respect for that "heart" which he claims for the Abbey when we suggest that, if popular interest is the best qualification for interment in Westminster Abbey, there is a class of persons who have a better title to the distinction even than princes. The true way to make the Abbey interesting would be to make it a mausoleum of distinguished murderers. In that character it would bear the same relation to its present self that the Chamber of Horrors at Mme. TUSSAUD's bears to the more commonplace room which contains the effigies of monarchs and heroes.

The DEAN's final argument was drawn from the "universal regret and sympathy" with which the news of the PRINCE's death was received in England. It is strange to hear the existence of this feeling urged as a plea for an act which more than anything else will check this regret and sympathy. Englishmen thought they could safely express their sorrow for a young man's death and a mother's bereavement because these were wholly dissociated from political considerations. The proposal to erect a monument of the PRINCE in Westminster Abbey—we beg the DEAN's pardon, in an appanage to Westminster Abbey—was the first inroad of political feeling into this general mourning. It gave a false colour to the regrets which had been freely uttered, and made the nation an accomplice in an act which, however it may be disguised, cannot but be open to an unfriendly interpretation on the part of the French people. They send the BONAPARTES into exile. We bury them in Westminster Abbey. The ordinary Frenchman will certainly be disposed to read in this contrast a virtual censure by Englishmen of what Frenchmen have done.

THE LATE OPERATIONS AT CABUL.

THE clear accounts furnished by the Correspondents from the camp at Cabul admit of a judgment being now formed of the various actions of last December which resulted in the force being suddenly converted from assailants into assailed, and finding themselves shut up for a time in their entrenchments at Sherpur. The rising of the tribes, and their combination on so large a scale, undoubtedly took us by surprise; nevertheless, the moral aspect of affairs would probably not have been so quickly changed but for two unfortunate incidents—the abortive charge of the cavalry and the temporary abandonment of four horse-artillery guns on the first day, and the loss of the two mountain guns on the last day's fighting. As for the first incident, it is difficult to find fault with the display of so much gallantry; but for a handful of cavalry to charge an army, and over very broken ground—even although that army be not a disciplined one—is not war. Both men and officers suffered very heavily, especially the former, and without inflicting any appreciable loss on the enemy. So bad was the ground that when a handful of the broken regiment of Lancers was got together for a second charge, the men had actually to advance in single file. The moral effect when cavalry are thrown away in attempts to accomplish impossibilities is not the least of the bad results. It must be remembered, however, that the greatest master of modern war over and over again made this mistake, as, for example, in the notable instance in the Spanish war, described by De Ségur, where Napoleon sent the Polish Lancers of his Guard to carry a Spanish battery securely posted above a ravine, galloping up which the gallant horsemen were most of them destroyed without being able even to approach the object of their attack. The common fault, no doubt, in handling cavalry is not to make sufficient use of them; but it requires a peculiar genius to seize the right moment for letting them go, especially against infantry; and if a mistake is made cavalry soon get out of hand. The temporary loss of the guns appears to have been due to their leaving the road, and being taken into ground where they could neither advance nor retreat; but the position of an unfortunate battery commander who is getting orders simultaneously from his colonel, his brigadier, and the general, is not conducive to decision in action. That the guns were recovered by a gallant staff officer was a piece of good fortune on a par with the ill luck of their loss in the first instance. The enemy, unaware of what had happened, made off in another direction, and the guns were left in the ditches where they had been abandoned, to be brought off without any serious fighting.

When the news of the loss of the guns and the unfortunate action of the cavalry was brought into Sherpur by some of the most rapid riders from the scene, a scare was not unnatural. The enemy was between the camp and Macpherson's and Baker's brigades, which were both away at a distance; and it was not known how they had fared. But the opinion which has since been expressed by some Correspondents, that the Sherpur

camp was really in serious danger of being carried, is surely not borne out by the facts. Even if only eight hundred fighting men were left in the place, we may assume, from what we know of the quality of the two sides, that this force would have been quite sufficient to hold its own until the two brigades came up to help; while an attack made on Sherpur by a force which had two of our brigades in its rear would not have been made with much deliberation or persistence. That our handful of cavalry, acting on ground quite unsuitable for horsemen, had not been able to make any impression on the enemy, hardly justifies the inference that eight hundred infantry, fighting on their own ground, would not have been able to hold their own against any number of the Afghans. And, indeed, a couple of companies of the 72nd, posted in the gorge of the Cabul river, sufficed to turn the assailants away from their line altogether. Still we had unquestionably been surprised and outmanoeuvred; there had been considerable misadventures during the day, and a less courageous general than Sir Frederick Roberts might well have determined to withdraw his force at once within the Sherpur line until the arrival of reinforcements. Had this been done, the result would in one sense have been the same, because this concentration was eventually forced upon the commander; and the subsequent three days' fighting would have been saved. But the attack on Sherpur which followed would probably have taken place much sooner, and before the position had been strengthened, and have been made with much more determination than was actually exhibited. And although the three days' fighting was inconclusive—indeed may be said to have resulted in defeat, since we had to give up the contested positions to the enemy—still it was illustrated by an exhibition of the splendid fighting qualities of our infantry. Nothing could have been finer than the way in which the heights above Cabul were carried, by an admirable combination of skill and pluck. The one unfortunate incident in the business, the loss of the two mountain guns, seems to have been mainly due to the fact that a detachment of native infantry, belonging to an excellent regiment, but led into action by a gallant young officer of Dragoons who had never done a day's duty with them before, and could not speak a word of their language, would not obey their leader, but went back when they ought to have gone forward. This is an unfortunate thing to do in action; but the sort of arrangement which brought it about is not fair to either officers or sepoy. A Ney or a Murat at the head of British soldiers would not have fared better. The native troops by general consent have behaved admirably in this war when led by officers whom they know and who know them; but, so long as the present system of officering the Indian army is maintained, these conditions must often be wanting; the officers of a native regiment are always liable to be suddenly used up.

The repulse of the attack on Sherpur does not call for much notice, because we had it all our own way; but the duty before it took place was severe, and the reaction upon this, and the subsequent ennui, may perhaps be sufficient to account for a certain tone of despondency which is somewhat too noticeable in the correspondence from that place; while there has been a tendency to make too much of the loss incurred. A list of about three hundred killed and wounded in four days' fighting, out of some four thousand who appear to have been actually engaged, is not large, although, no doubt, the attendant conditions may have served to intensify the effect on the imagination. Some of the loss was unnecessary, and the troops were called on to carry positions which they had to give up immediately afterwards; but further, whereas in ordinary battles the casualties are, so to speak, promiscuous—there being little room for taking aim or for prominence of individuals, but men are knocked over by chance—here some of the best and bravest were the first to fall; some of them men who had already distinguished themselves by their soldierlike qualities, while others were killed in the act of making their reputations, leading on their men and falling at their head in personal combat. In one sense, indeed, the loss may have been insufficient. It is certainly the case that our most bloody battles in India have usually been also the most decisive. We suffered terribly in the engagements with the Sikhs; but they suffered still more, and at last, confessing themselves thoroughly beaten and accepting the position, gave in completely. The Afghans have never yet been thoroughly punished; perhaps, if they were, they too would knock under for good.

As regards the future, the arrangements which are now being made for strengthening the position at Cabul will put all further attack on it out of question. The forts, within a few hundred yards of Sherpur, which the enemy occupied from the 15th to the 23rd of December, and from which we were unable to dislodge them until, after the grand repulse, they went off of their own accord, have now at last been destroyed, as they should have been in the first instance; all cover round the walls is being levelled; broad roads admit of a sweeping artillery fire in all directions; Sherpur itself has been strengthened, and we have also constructed detached posts which should prevent the enemy from even approaching it or the city of Cabul; the heights above Cabul which were the scene of the three days' fighting being crowned with redoubts which should be practically quite impregnable against Afghan assailants. The Cabul Correspondent of the *Times*, who is understood to be an experienced veteran, suggests a doubt whether the line of posts is not too extensive for the available force; but it is far better to form your retrenched camp by means of detached works so as to admit

of the garrison moving freely about in support of the different outworks, and to keep the enemy from out of range of the main position, than to strengthen the latter only, and to leave the exterior circumference all neutral ground. In the present case, too, it must be of paramount necessity to prevent the insurgents from again obtaining possession of the city, even temporarily. Their last occupation was undoubtedly a very untoward event. Our general tendency in India is to be indifferent to the point of recklessness about taking precautions of this sort, and making defences supply the place of numbers. To this day there is hardly a fortified post throughout the length and breadth of India, and it is very unlikely we shall do too much in this way even at Cabul.

It is impossible to mistake the tone of weariness which, to judge by the correspondence in the papers and the general tenor of private letters, seems to have come over the garrison of Cabul. Officers and men are represented as being sick and weary of the war, and longing to be back in India. The feeling of weariness is not unnatural; the troops are now suffering all the discomfort without having any of the excitement of campaigning. But the present situation of things is very much what might have been expected. It was pretty evident, when Roberts made his first advance over the Shuturgardan, that as soon as he had succeeded in reaching Cabul there would be little to do save to hold on there till the spring. On the whole, things have turned out much better than could have been expected; a bold policy, as usually happens in war, has proved a successful one. The health of the army has been good, considering the circumstances; indeed, what the troops in the Kyber, which are in much worse case than those in advance, are suffering from now, is not the sickness produced by the present cold, but the result of their trying march back to India last summer, from the effects of which some regiments in the rear are still almost entirely prostrated. But when we hear it said that a definite policy is now wanted, it may be replied that an army has nothing to do with policy; while there can be no question of retirement in the present state of things. Opposition must first be put down, in whatever part of the country it appears, before we can begin to think about vacating it. Perhaps it is because wars in recent times have been brought to an end so quickly that murmurs are now heard about the duration of this war; but it may be as well to remember that our Peninsular army was—some part of it—eight years at work, and that many of Napoleon's troops were absent from their own country much longer than that. At any rate, the words of advice lately spoken by the Premier will not be out of place; our soldiers, as well as our politicians, have to be firm and steadfast. But with the renewal of active operations in the spring, campaigning in Afghanistan will probably assume a livelier aspect.

THE FRENCH NOBILITY.

A SERIES of articles on foreign nobilities has lately appeared in the columns of one of our daily contemporaries. The subject has a certain amount of interest and importance in the democratic days on which we are fallen, when merit and money are each struggling to oust mere aristocracy from its traditional vantage-ground. We ask ourselves, when we see how are the mighty fallen in some other countries, if the force of tradition, the strength of material wealth, and the generally deserved moral power that hedges round our own titled aristocracy, will avail for long to preserve for them their place, influence, and social predominance. If the House of Peers were swept away in obedience to some new theory, and in its stead there were set up a Senate after a foreign fashion, if we altered the laws relating to land and the succession thereto so as to make them satisfactory to Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain, where would our nobility be then?

It is a pity that the writer of the article on the French nobility in the journal referred to, while giving us but little information of value, should have been at the pains of representing them in a ridiculous light. We suspect that he had been drawing his knowledge from democratic sources, and that he has not much personal acquaintance with the subjects of his satire. He gravely tells us that in France there are over five hundred dukes, several thousand marquesses, and between two and three hundred thousand counts. At that rate, one might calculate that every fiftieth man one met in the street would be a nobleman. And this would be leaving out of reckoning the viscounts, who would be proportionately numerous, and the barons, who would be as thick as blackberries. It is scarcely necessary to say that the estimate is enormously exaggerated. There are in France, as with us, five hereditary nobiliary titles, which correspond with our own—namely, those of *Duc*, *Marquis*, *Comte*, *Vicomte*, and *Baron*—though some mysterious difficulties attach to the relative precedence of *marquis* and *comte*, which we do not pretend to fathom, only observing by the way that Napoleon hated and never would confer the former title. We may also note the curious custom in one or two families of alternating titles, the *marquis* succeeding his father the *comte*, and being in his turn succeeded by his son as *comte*, and so on. There is no such title as *Prince*, other than belonging to Royal or Imperial families. Princely prefixes to French names are therefore of foreign importation and origin. The most eminent before the Revolution belonged to dignitaries of the Holy Roman Empire. Napoleon, indeed, created a few princes other than of the blood Imperial, but they were made princes of localities not in

France. Of such were Ney, created *Prince de la Moskowa*; and Berthier, created *Prince de Wagram*. One of the compilers of our Red Books holds that, though the nomenclature and sequence of rank of the five degrees of French nobility correspond with our own, such correspondence exists but in name or theory. A foreign countess, he says, is in no way a countess in our sense of the term. But the only difference—it is of course a striking one—is that foreign countesses are not peeresses, or rather are not the wives of hereditary legislators. With that exception there is no distinction whatever as regards rank; and the wife of an Irish or Scotch earl having no seat in the House of Peers is the exact counterpart of the wife of a recognized French count.

In estimating the value of titles, the dignity of their possessors, and the degree of precedence which should be accorded them, it is of course essential to ascertain whether they are the genuine creations of sovereigns; for the periodical chaos into which the country is thrown by sudden changes of government, and the assumption of power by new men in all departments of the State, opens many doors to all sorts of claimants and adventurers. The genuine nobility is composed of the *ancienne noblesse* of the Bourbon monarchy and nobles of Napoleonic creation. As a rule, the latter are held in scant respect; but there are striking exceptions; and the descendants of such men as Lannes, Masséna, Davoust, Ney, and two or three more, bear names and titles indissolubly associated with traditions which will perhaps for ages be enshrined in the heart of the great mass of the nation. But Napoleon made nobles out of other than heroes. He knew well the shallowness of the ridiculous theory of equality in a country with a history like that of France and among a people who perhaps, above all others, appreciate those distinctions which separate them from and elevate them above the common herd. Since he signally failed, even at the height of his power and renown, to rally to his cause in any considerable numbers the high nobility of the Bourbons, he was compelled to make fresh creations. Generals of brigade, on attaining that grade, became *ipso facto* barons; generals of division became counts. All the marshals, with but two exceptions, if we remember right, were made dukes or princes.

With the collapse of the Napoleonic Empire this state of things came to an end. The brand-new electro-plated *noblesse*, despised by the sterling old nobles of the Royalist monarchy, had not been able to conciliate the respect of the masses: and indeed were regarded as an anomaly in a democratic Empire, and with reason. The people, however cajoled, fascinated, terrified into humble obedience to their democratic Emperor, nevertheless resented the attempt to create a race of minor divinities, and to revive traditions supposed to have received their death-blow at the Revolution. The whole theory of the Bonapartes is that they are the elected of a free people having equal privileges and an equal voice in all matters—that they are the natural chiefs of a Republic, or sovereigns of a Republican Empire. For years after Napoleon I. was seated on the throne the coinage of the country bore on one side the words, "Napoléon I. Empereur," and on the other "République Française." That was a strange jumble of ideas, impossible perhaps in any other country than France—the land nevertheless of logic. On the one side, a theory of liberty, equality, fraternity; on the other, its practical annihilation. But to invent an hereditary nobility was to make the confusion of ideas yet more complete, and indeed such a nobility was quite out of place, and had no *raison d'être* under such conditions.

On the Restoration of the Bourbons the remnants of the old aristocracy began to return from voluntary or enforced emigration, or from home isolation. Although shorn of their privileges and much of their wealth, and no longer feudal lords, they were suffered to regain, amid a people disenchanted with their idols and wearied with change and loss, some little of their ancient prestige. Charles X. was surrounded by as brilliant a throng of historic names as ever gathered about a Court. But he and they soon showed that wisdom and pedigree were not interchangeable terms, and then came the *bourgeois* King Louis Philippe, who sought a popularity, which proved of no long continuance, among the middle rather than the upper classes. In his reign some titles were conferred. In one instance he conferred on his Chancellor, M. Pasquier, a dukedom, which is now enjoyed by his nephew (born Audiffret), as Duc d'Audiffret-Pasquier. The revolutionists of 1848 abolished titles and proscribed the use even of the prefix *de*; but these measures met with but indifferent success in their application. They were, however, an improvement upon the proceedings of the men of '89, who were not content with depriving nobles of their distinctions, but, to make doubly sure, deprived them of their heads—all they could catch. In 1848, laws and enactments notwithstanding, a kind of freemasonry was established by the threatened class against which legislation was almost powerless. On the reappearance of the Empire titles were officially restored, and steps were taken to preserve the institution of nobility from further deterioration. Not only was it forbidden to assume a title, or even the *de*, or any name other than the designation defined in the *Acte de Naissance*, but such assumptions were made punishable by fine and imprisonment. Moreover, any notary allowing the insertion in a public or official act or document of an assumed title or name was rendered liable to a heavy punishment himself. In addition to this, a Committee was appointed to examine into the validity of all titles and of all claims to bear titles. The *Acte de Naissance* is a voucher which must be produced by every Frenchman when he comes into contact with the State or with the official world. It defines the owner's exact capacity, and is implicitly to be relied on. In the

cases, however, of all persons born before 1805, during the revolutionary era, the *Acte de Naissance* ignores claims to titles, and even the right to use a *de*, so that nobles born in that epoch have to make good their claims from other sources. The titles conferred by Napoleon III.—Duc de Magenta, Duc de Persigny, Comte de Palikao, &c.—were imitations of the titles of the First Empire.

Unfortunately for the reputation of the order, not a few persons in France have, in spite of prohibitions, continued to use titles with which they have dubbed themselves. Imperial thunders, effective enough when launched against men in the performance of public acts, failed to overwhelm the mere counts of social intercourse, who would drop their designations at critical moments and subside gently into their proper quality before the law. It may not be generally known that, strictly speaking, there are no such things in France as courtesy titles. The son of a duke is plain *Monsieur*, just as the daughter of a duke is plain *Mademoiselle*. Whether it be in imitation of German or English custom we know not, but the practice has generally obtained during this century of eldest sons taking the title next below that of their father, and of younger sons using an inferior title; qualifying the assumption, just as younger sons of dukes and marquesses do in England, by the addition of the Christian name. It will be seen, therefore, that, as Sir Bernard Burke has observed, it is essential, when we want to establish the true status of a man in his own country, that each separate case should be inquired into; for while it would be discourteous to some foreign guests to deny them that precedence and regard which is really their due, it would be absurd to treat others with a distinction to which in their own land they are strangers.

In France, then, speaking generally, the aristocracy may be divided into the families of the descendants or survivors of the *noblesse* of the Bourbon monarchy, which numbers in its ranks the *noblesse* of the Court, capital, and historic fame; and the *noblesse de province*, which, often locally powerful, has not, from want of means and other causes, come prominently forward or made a figure at Court; the titled of Napoleonic creation; and the holders of courtesy titles. But we must not omit to notice a class of possessors of sounding titles and ringing names which are not to be found in any *Livre d'or*, or *Annuaire de la Noblesse*, and which the *Almanac de Gotha* most unceremoniously ignores. These much affect the large "thermal establishments" in Italy, Germany, Spain, and Southern France, as being the rendezvous of a motley gathering of celebrities and nobodies of many countries, in which they find opportunities of borrowing money on the strength of sonorous titles which it is worth nobody's while to challenge. These adventurers know well the ridicule to which their pretensions would expose them in their own native *arrondissement*; and although in France ridicule kills, they are alive to the strange fascination which almost any kind of title has for the people of this country, and shape their course accordingly. Unless *Paterfamilias* see a newcomer dangling after his wife and daughters he does not trouble himself to inquire into the family history of a casual acquaintance. Besides, even fairly good English society nowadays is pretty largely made up of people too anxious to establish their own claims, and with no particular ancestral traditions they would care to have scrutinized, to be too inquisitive about the foreign count with his polite address, and his countess with her Parisian fashions. But it is by no means difficult for the curiously inclined to obtain some clue to the real position and antecedents of a foreigner. In the case of French subjects a reference to their Embassy and to the *Annuaire de la Noblesse* will usually obtain the required information.

To sum up, the French nobility is still a social power of no mean order. If its exclusiveness and its indisposition to descend into the arena to fight with the masses diminish its political power and its capacity for usefulness, these negative qualities rather add to its social importance. The frequenters of fashionable drawing-rooms cannot fail to be struck with the peculiarities of address and manners which mark the democratic *parvenu*; and in Paris the diplomatic body and foreign visitors of rank naturally prefer, so far as they have a choice, to associate with those whose principles, habits of thought, and everyday manners are akin to their own. And the nobility is a political power; though, because its influence is in these days exercised at a distance from the great centres of industry, and because it works beneath the surface, English writers are apt to underestimate its latent importance. But its numbers are great, its wealth is far greater than is generally supposed, and, in the spirit of freemasonry peculiar to all aristocracies, they pull well together. We need only look, in proof of this, at the division-lists of the late National Assembly. Moreover, the active sympathy of large bodies of the nobility with the priests, and the almost fanatical zeal of vast numbers of women for religion, contribute together to exercise, especially in country districts and smaller towns, a strong counter-balancing influence to that of the *libres penseurs*.

We have not attempted to treat of several important parts of our subject, such as the varying privileges of the nobility at different epochs; nor have we referred to the extremely numerous *noblesse de robe* which was swept away at the Revolution, and whose members were only nobles through their tenure of certain offices, but had no social standing. It is sufficient to observe that, though as late as less than fifty years back the nobility constituted a class of which the people entertained an inveterate jealousy, now they possess not one single

privilege outside the social circle. But though the institution is not on that account to be ridiculed, seeing that it numbers in its ranks some of the most respectable elements of the community, and is moreover the depository of grand and glorious traditions, it would be idle to make a comparison between the French nobility and the peerage of England. Our nobles, besides being a less numerous and therefore more important class, are hereditary legislators, and supporters of monarchical traditions in a country long and happily rooted in its attachment to and respect for constitutional royalty. In another sense, also, it is evident that comparisons are out of place between the English and French peoples when their institutions, national characteristics, and ways of looking at things are essentially different. In England, for instance, the wealth or the reputed wealth of a nobleman has very much to do with the amount of interest which he excites. In France some persons would honour a nobleman in virtue of his ancient origin; others would ask, "Is he for the King?" (true Royalists never say the *Comte de Chambord*); but a more numerous party only respects nobility when allied with intellect. It is most rarely the case that the first question asked about him is, "Has he much money?" An English lord is looked upon in France as a man who has unlimited means; but it can truly be said that, except in certain circles in Paris, as among hotelkeepers and tradesmen, he excites no interest whatever on that score.

So long as a people respect the honours and orders of their country, it is absurd for outsiders to disparage and ridicule these distinctions. We in England may think that the Legion of Honour is so widely distributed that its possession cannot be particularly prized. There can be no greater mistake. It is greedily sought after and intrigued for by men of all ranks and all parties throughout the country. "Not one simple Chevalier of the Order," said once a French gentleman to us, "would exchange his little bit of red riband for the noble Order of the Garter!" And the same thing may be said of titles. Some staunch Republicans excepted, there are few counts or barons who do not keenly appreciate being counts or barons; and among the untitled multitude there are few indeed who, being even distantly related to a duke or marquess, would willingly allow the fact to escape the general knowledge. So there is still in the land of equality a large store set upon inequalities.

THINGS THAT COME CHEAPER IN THE END.

ALL vicious pleasures are greatly enhanced when it is possible on any pretext to persuade oneself that they are the fulfilment of a duty. The Manicheans, without doubt, enjoyed their debaucheries all the more because they were indulged in at their religious assemblies; the Protector's soldiers thought it fine fun to kill their enemies to the cry of "The sword of the Lord and of Gideon"; and invalids have felt a virtuous satisfaction in acquiring a fatal habit of nipping because their doctors have ordered them to take a glass of wine when they feel weak. Extravagance, too, like other vices, has an additional charm when it can be yielded to under the cloak of prudence. Economizing is not a very agreeable process; but to be able to fancy that one is economizing when one is in reality launching out into unusually heavy expenditure must be delightful indeed. We sometimes meet with people who seem to enjoy deceiving themselves more than any other amusement; and no form of self-deception can be more agreeable than imagining that present extravagance means future thrift.

Thus a resident in London will persuade himself that it would cost less to take a house by the year in a quiet part of Berkshire or Surrey wherein to spend the autumn than to make an annual tour on the Continent with his wife and family. It is the easiest thing in the world to prove this on paper. Rent will be so much; the wages of a gardener—whose wife will take care of the house when uninhabited by the occupier—so much more; the probable cost of living is also put down, and now you have everything that need be entered on the debtor side of the estimate. On the creditor side you must put the average cost per month of living at first-class Continental hotels; the railway expenses of a tour in Switzerland, Germany, or the north of Italy; and the sums generally laid out on dresses for the girls when at fashionable foreign cities or watering-places, as of course they will be able to wear their old clothes in the proposed rural retreat. Now add up the columns on each side, and the little house in the country will show a flattering balance of several hundred pounds. What could be simpler? If the simplicity were to be strictly adhered to, the truth of the estimate would follow as a necessary consequence; but simplicity, like soda-water, requires certain additions to make it palatable to people who are accustomed to town life in the nineteenth century. At the model villa, for instance, of which we have spoken, it is soon found that at least a pony carriage is indispensable; and as locomotion is a very slow affair in a one-horse conveyance, a pair of ponies and a larger carriage are, after a while, considered necessary. Three or four ponies are bought and sold (not at a profit) before a pair are procured which satisfy the occupier of the happy retreat, and by that time they have cost as much as horses or more. Indeed their owner is not sure that a pair of horses would not have paid better in the end. Further, it is not very pleasant to have a dirty, ill-dressed, and untidy-looking Jack-of-all-trades sitting behind your carriage; therefore a smart groom, with a neat suit of livery, becomes a necessity. But then he will take care of the

ponies, and keep the new harness from getting spoiled; so, despite his high wages and the cost of his livery, it is believed that he will eventually prove a saving.

Again, unless a man has some sports or other amusements to while away his time, he can scarcely live for two or three months at a country house without acquiring some taste for gardening. We have heard divines say that, of all recreations, gardening is the most innocent. They are probably right, speaking in a general way; but there are instances in which this innocent recreation would appear to be the veritable "mischief still" spoken of by the poet as readily procurable for idle hands. Let a man once taste the sweets of high gardening, and, unless his moral courage and self-denial are of an equally high order, he is pretty certain to run into extravagance over his hobby. He is always longing for more and more glass. He finds, too, that he wants more and more undergrounders; and he only requires a head-gardener who understands the art of persuading him that an increase of his hot-houses, his forcing-pits, and his horticultural staff will pay in the end, to have a very fair chance of making his gardens one of the heaviest items in his annual expenditure. It appears to us that the innocence of gardening is rather overrated. Extravagance in a garden can hardly be said to be much more virtuous than extravagance in a stable. But many people seem to consider a love of flowers a sort of whitewash for a multitude of sins. We have known men who were anything but moral in their conduct say, with an air of childish innocence and simplicity, "Well, after all, my greatest pleasure is my garden," as if their admiration of beautiful flowers quite atoned for all their less guileless tastes. When a man takes a country house it behoves him to be specially on his guard against the delusive innocence of gardening, or he will soon find his real balance-sheet very different from the ideal document which we suppose him to have drawn up before coming to the conclusion that a small country house, as opposed to foreign travel, would pay in the end. Our rural householder is further told that nothing pays so well as a pig, and he accordingly buys a couple of pigs, and these pigs really do pay pretty well so long as the family are at their country house; but when they return to London there is an absence of the desirable fluid commonly known as "wash," on which pigs thrive, and meal, though an efficient and more fattening substitute, is not inexpensive. As regards poultry, a few hens are found to pay their way so well that some pens of prize birds are purchased, as it is so much nicer to see thoroughbred things about one; and, independently of the primary cost of these treasures, a large sum has to be laid out in making suitable yards for them, protected with wire-netting. In order to procure the desired poultry, the *Exchange and Mart* is taken in for a few weeks, with the usual result. Chickens, ducks, pigeons, ring-doves, parrots, tame rabbits, and peacocks are bought on most advantageous terms, and boxes, hutches, cots, and pens are made for these charming pets. There is a St. Bernard dog advertised in one number of the periodical, which is too tempting to be missed. He is guaranteed to be of enormous size, quiet with children, clean in the house, good-tempered, affectionate, and a faithful guardian. He turns out to be all that his panegyrist described, and he becomes the pet of the household; so much so, in fact, that it is voted a pity that a suitable helpmate of the same breed is not at hand. To the delight of everybody in the house an advertisement is found in the paper already mentioned of exactly the animal required, and although the price is rather high, she is purchased, because breeding St. Bernards is well known to be a lucrative proceeding. When the time comes for the return to London it is found necessary to appoint a functionary whose sole duty it will be to attend to the pets which have been procured through the convenient medium of the *Exchange and Mart*. Some shooting being to be let in the neighbourhood, it is taken by the occupier of our model residence, because it is a chance which might never occur again; and of course a suitable keeper is engaged to look after it. Every one assures our sportsman that he will find it cheaper in the end to have a regular keeper. When the domestic accounts for the year are drawn up under the chilling atmosphere of the month of February in a gloomy study at the back of the London house, it is found that between shooting, ponies, gardens, pigs, poultry, St. Bernards, and other pets and hobbies, the country villa, with its accompaniments, has cost even more than did the tours on the Continent of former years. The end has come, and the venture has certainly not paid.

If dwellers in cities deceive themselves in expecting country villas to prove economical, dwellers in the country deceive themselves still more with respect to London houses. People who have been in the habit of going to a London hotel or lodging-house for six weeks in the season are sometimes enamoured of the idea that it would be cheaper in the end to take a house. The rent of a small house is, they argue, rather less than the price paid for lodgings, and it would cost no more to keep the servants in London than to pay them board-wages in the country. The only extra expense would be the carriage of the servants to London and back, and this would be amply repaid by the comfort which would be thereby procured; in addition to which it would be much cheaper to feed oneself in one's own house than to pay a West-End hotel or lodging-house-keeper's charges per head for meals. Then at hotels or lodgings each visitor at luncheon, or even tea, is charged for at an exorbitant rate, even if he or she scarcely tastes food; while at one's own house a few people looking in when eating or drinking is going on will not perceptibly affect the bills. Then there will be another great saving—indeed, we may say the greatest

saving of all; when London people show hospitality to the country bumpkin who is residing in lodgings, he is unable to repay their kindness in town; he is often therefore obliged to invite his London hosts to spend a few days with him in the country in return for a single dinner-party, ball, or kettledrum. Now, if he takes a house, he will be able to give a tooth for a tooth; or, to speak more accurately, a dinner-party for a dinner-party, which will be a far better business than feeding a man for a week who has only fed him for a couple of hours. It seems, therefore, very clear to the unsophisticated country gentleman that to take a house in London will pay in the end. When he begins to put his notion into practice he arrives at the conclusion that, the chief extra expense being the journeys to and fro of his servants, the proportionate cost will be less according to the time they remain in London. The average weekly expense of three months will therefore be less than that of six weeks, and a considerable saving may thus be effected at home, because for so long an absence it will be worth reducing the number of men employed in the garden and stables. The cost of the servants' transit, however, and the carriage of the trifles which the cook and butler consider indispensable, amount to considerably more than the estimate, and it is found necessary to have a charwoman and some packers' men in the house for two or three days, both at the beginning and the end of the London visit. The cretonnes and chintzes in the reception-rooms are found to be so dirty that it is decided to purchase new covers for the furniture of these apartments, both for the sake of cleanliness and comfort, and because it will be the most economical proceeding in the end. It would require time and money to clean and callender the old ones; besides which, they would never look really nice after they had been cleaned. London dinner-parties, again, turn out to be far more costly entertainments than was supposed. A good many bachelors and non-dinner-giving dowagers have to be asked to make up a party to meet perhaps one pair of dinner-giving friends, which makes the average cost of repaying dinner with dinner alarmingly high. London luncheons, too, when properly done, prove far from economical meals. But a drum, at any rate, is a cheap affair. At least so thinks a country squire until he receives the bills for the hire of the plants, the glass, and china, the strawberries, the champagne, and the greengrocers. Having a house in London extends one's acquaintance in a wonderful way, and obtains much hospitality; but, besides the necessity of repaying that hospitality in kind, there is the expense of keeping extra night horses and men, or of hiring a brougham at so much an evening. Altogether, when a country gentleman takes a London house for the season, because he thinks it will be cheaper in the end, he is unlikely to find his annual budget improved thereby.

We have only given a couple of familiar instances of the fallacy of expecting certain expenses to turn out probable economies. Many other cases must at once occur to the mind of every head of a family who has any experience. We may conclude by suggesting as food for retrospection and contemplation the various outlays which most householders have at different times made at the request of their servants, who assured them that, although they might appear heavy at first, they would certainly pay in the end. Whether this pleasant anticipation was eventually realized, we leave to those experienced in such matters to say.

CARDINAL MANNING ON THE CHURCH AND SOCIETY.

MR. FROUDE has been contributing a couple of highly characteristic articles to the last number and the last but one of the *North American Review* on "Romanism and the Irish Race." The moral of the tale is summed up at the opening of his second article, where he concludes that, "if England could have thought only of herself," apart from Ireland, she might have left her penal laws against Papists—which were a perfectly fair retaliation on Papal intolerance—unrepealed; and without Catholic Emancipation there would have been "no Catholic revival," no "Tractarian or Anglo-Catholic movement in the English Church." Cardinal Manning would perhaps never have been converted, and Cardinal Newman would have carried with him into obscurity but a few nameless personal admirers. As it is, Latitudinarians and High Churchmen have brought about between them a result which each least expected; "O'Connell's Irish tail and the Oxford theologians created together the singular phenomenon of English polemical Ultramontanism." Certainly O'Connell would have been surprised at the theological, and the Oxford Tractarians at the political, results to which their respective influences have contributed. But Mr. Froude's object is to reaffirm once more the half Catholic, half Carlylean principle on which he has already so often insisted. "Romanism, burdened with so many spiritual incredibilities and so dark a history," was rightly put down with a strong hand, but when a mistaken "Liberalism" withdrew the pressure, it began at once to recover its ground, because it represents a very real and essential principle which the world cannot afford to forget—the principle of authority, or in other words the "natural superiority of truth to falsehood, and right to wrong." It is indeed a delusion to imagine that the Catholic Church is our divinely appointed guide, but it is quite true that there ought to be a divine guidance somewhere, "and, as long as modern civilization continues to deny it, a growing section of mankind will support the Church in refusing to reconcile itself with modern civilization." Mr. Froude of

course adds that the Church will come to grief in the long run, for "Romanism cannot again command the serious belief of mankind," but meanwhile England and the United States have a good deal to learn from her, though the lesson may be an unpleasant and humiliating one. And we are left not obscurely to infer that the lesson to be learnt is the duty of suppressing error with a vigorous hand, when once we are clear about the truth. As a distinguished sceptical Professor is reported to have said to Cardinal Manning, "the principle of persecution is right, only you Ultramontanes burn the wrong people." How far Cardinal Manning is prepared openly to endorse that principle, it might not be easy to determine, but we can hardly be wrong in assuming that the article from his pen on "the Catholic Church and Modern Society" which appears in the current number of the same Review was suggested by a perusal of Mr. Froude's papers, though he makes no reference to them. Nor is it very easy to discover what point precisely he is aiming at, though he begins by telling us that his object is not speculative and abstract but strictly concrete and practical. The first part of his paper indeed, if not abstract, is as dry and technical as the rules and definition of a logic manual, without being remarkably original. It is intended to indicate the true nature of Church and State and their relation to each other. We may however pass over these "premises" of his argument, and come at once to his conclusions, which, if not always easy to reconcile with the premises, are at least flattering to our national self-esteem. He refers once or twice casually to the Syllabus, but quotes at some length from the Encyclical of Leo XIII. in 1878, and apparently wishes to promote that better understanding between the Church and the Civil Power which the present Pope has all along shown himself specially desirous of bringing about. At the same time we are warned at the outset that the Church can only partially hold political relations with such States as have departed from Catholic unity, which includes all the States of modern Europe. As Mr. Froude holds that England made a mistake, if it was an unavoidable one, in relaxing the penal laws against Papists, Cardinal Manning holds no State to be in a normal and legitimate condition which does not enforce penal laws against Protestantism. The excuse of necessity may in either case prove a valid one, but it is an excuse for a necessary evil.

And now we will try to give a summary of the Cardinal's view, which seems at least to be intended to correspond with the principles of Leo XIII.'s Encyclical. The Church, we are told, can hold no political relations with the revolutionary politics of France and Italy based on the principles of 1789, but it can and ought to hold relations with all States "in all things of the natural order," so far as they do not violate the natural or divine law. But in proportion as the Governments of any countries are under the dominion of an erroneous religion, or of a schism, or of a royal supremacy, or of an imperial despotism, or of an anti-Christian revolution, the Church can hold no relations with them. It cannot condone the Lutheran heresy, or the Anglican schism, or the four (Gallican) Articles of 1682, or the Organic Articles, or the Russian Synod, or the Falk Laws, and the like. Still the Church is bound to do what it can for such misguided States—that is, for all the modern States of Europe—to preserve what remains in them of Christian faith and morals and to recall them to a more healthy condition. And in proportion as the civil power releases itself from the dominion of influences antagonistic to the Church, the relations between them may become more intimate. This is chiefly the case in Great Britain and the United States—we presume because the English Government is less "under the dominion of the Anglican Schism" than it was formerly, or in other words less closely connected with the Established Church, while there is no Established Church in America. In England there are no religious penal laws, "the Catholic Church has all its spiritual liberties," and there is hardly any branch of the public service into which a Catholic may not enter with a safe conscience. From this the inference is drawn that, in a country like England, for Catholics to hold aloof from the active service of the commonwealth is both a dereliction of duty and "a policy of effacement," which only their enemies can desire to perpetuate. That to a great extent they still do hold aloof, and that the whole British constituency "does not return a single Catholic to Parliament," must be traced to the lingering tradition of the penal laws. As regards the last point, however, we may remind the Cardinal that several Roman Catholics sat for English constituencies before the Papal Aggression panic, though we believe the late Sir John Simeon is the only one who has been elected since. In France Cardinal Manning deplors that so many Catholics abstain from voting, while the rivalries and divisions in the Conservative party, "in which the sounder Catholic politicians are, or ought to be, found," still further weaken their influence. Their sympathies are with monarchy rather than with republicanism, but are divided between Imperialists and Legitimists. The Republicanism of France, we are to remember, is not that of Switzerland or America, but is distinctly anti-Christian; if it had its way, "the France of St. Louis would become, not the United States of America, which are just and tolerant in religion, but the France of Voltaire and Rousseau." It is striving by the Ferry Bills, as Germany by the Falk Laws, to expel Christianity from the education and formation of youth, and men, and nations, and political Caesarism or the dedication of the civil power must be the result. "There is not a Government in Europe," adds the Cardinal—the italics are ours—"except our own, that did not use its influence against the [Vatican] Council and the Catholic Church. There is not a Government at this day, except our own, which has not a social

revolution at its back, urging it on towards manifest dangers and perhaps towards its ruin."

As to the Vatican Council, we doubt whether any European Government, except that of France during its earlier proceedings, used any influence whatever against it—by which the writer means against the infallibilists and in support of the Opposition—and the French Government did what little it did in that way in concert with leading French prelates like Archbishop Darboy. The English, Prussian, and Russian Governments had of course no direct concern with the matter, though it no doubt indirectly affected the first two, especially on account of their many millions of Roman Catholic subjects. The Roman Catholic Governments were exhorted to use their influence against the dominant Ultramontane party, and perhaps would have done wisely to pay more attention to the advice; but, however that may be, it came from no anti-Christian, or even anti-Catholic quarter, but from Prince Hohenlohe, then Prime Minister of Bavaria, who is, we believe, in the confidence of the present Pope, and whom Cardinal Manning will hardly venture to denounce as not "a good Catholic." He it was who justly pointed out in his despatch to the Continental Governments that the projected dogma of Papal Infallibility is also an eminently political question. But to turn to the general drift of the Cardinal's argument; if he is right in saying that nowhere does his Church enjoy such entire liberty as in the British Empire, and especially in some of its more recent colonies, and that ours is the only Government which is not threatened with a social revolution, what follows? This, for one thing—that a nation and Government which for three centuries and a half has broken with Rome, and which was always before that the most anti-Papal in its temper and legislation of any in Europe, is nevertheless now found, on his own showing, to be, if not the most Christian, certainly the least anti-Christian of any in the world. Of the Governments of France and Italy the Cardinal has not a good word to say; yet France was the eldest daughter of the Church, and Italy has been the cradle and the home of the Papacy. It is easy to reply that they have apostatized from the Church's rule, but it is under her teaching that they learnt the lesson of apostasy. We are far from saying that there is no truth in the reproaches hurled at the illiberal and irreligious, or anti-religious, spirit of modern French and Italian legislation, but under what auspices did that spirit grow up? What influences have made it what it is? France till a century ago, Italy till the other day, were held within the strictest bonds of "Catholic unity." In both countries "the education and formation of boys, youth, men, nations" was under the exclusive control of the Church. Yet "the children of the Crusaders" are what they are in France, and the Italian clergy—as Father Curci emphatically reminded them not many years ago—had the entire training and moulding of the generation who revile the Church, and affect to call themselves atheists. "Yes, gentlemen," he said, "with the temporal power of the Pope, with legitimate princes on the throne, with episcopal authority universally respected and the action of the regular and secular clergy unimpeded and in full operation, with full liberty to do whatever we deemed expedient, we have formed this flower of a laity." It may be replied that they have rebelled against their teachers, but why did they rebel? The fault cannot surely have been all on one side. There must have been something to provoke so fierce and so general a revolt from the teaching and tradition of centuries. The Church had on her side authority, prestige, exclusive command of the situation, that claim to divine guidance which Mr. Froude admits to be a most powerful element of her influence and which Cardinal Manning vindicates as her absolute and rightful possession. Yet the nations she ruled have fallen a prey to "anti-Christian revolution," while England alone stands firm, and alone guarantees to her, not indeed the privileges and domination she once enjoyed, but "all her spiritual liberties." The Cardinal has propounded and emphasized a paradox of which he offers no solution, and on the Ultramontane hypothesis it is very hard to find one. The more completely his indictment against modern society can be substantiated—and theorists differing from him as widely as Mr. Froude would agree with a good deal of it—the more perplexing does the problem become. We are not undertaking to solve it here, but we would venture to suggest to Cardinal Manning that in a study of the confessions of several Popes of the sixteenth century, and the records of several Councils of the fifteenth, he might find much valuable aid towards a better comprehension of the subject. No serious believer, of whatever communion, can regard with anything like unalloyed satisfaction the present condition of the Christian world; but to say that, in proportion as they have listened to the infallible guidance of the Roman pontiff or rejected it, Christian nations have approached or deflected from the ideal standard of perfect holiness and truth, is a strange reading of history. It is the privilege of Ultramontane apologists to be *Papá Papaliores*, but we doubt whether the present occupant of the Chair of Peter would be willing unequivocally to endorse the short and easy methods and sweeping assumptions of his Eminence of Westminster. It is satisfactory to find him able to speak so well of his country, but there is something a little odd in the intimate conjunction of praise of the British Constitution with rapturous devotion to the Vatican decrees.

THE DOCTOR IN THE KITCHEN.

SOME time ago we noticed a genial article by Sir Henry Thompson, in which that eminent surgeon, departing from a strictly scientific view of food and drink, considered dinners after the fashion of a gastronome, and in a manner calculated to try the nerves of a medical Puritan. Now another member of the same profession has given readers the benefit of his opinions on this interesting subject, which he has treated with quite as much liberality and quite as much disregard for austere rules as Sir Henry Thompson showed. Mr. Ernest Hart has commenced in the *Sanitary Record* a series of articles on the hygiene of food, and in the second of them he diverges, to use his own expression, "from the theoretical data of physiology and hygiene, to study practically certain kinds of dinners"—or, in other words, to try to point out what sort of dinner is most enjoyable. Few persons are likely to quarrel with him for his divergence, as most people who have any liking for good things or any feeling of hospitality are glad to know what a clever doctor who is not without human sympathies, and can throw aside for the nonce chemistry and physiology, has to say about eating and drinking.

A doctor, however, even when writing in this manner, is in one respect a doctor still. It is said that clergymen can never entirely forget the pulpit, and medical men can never quite get rid of the authoritative manner which belongs to their profession. In following it their business is not to argue, or to explain, or to suggest, but to dictate. It is for them to lay down the law, for others to acquiesce. When they address the outer world they are justifiably positive, as they are learned men addressing the ignorant. Not unnaturally, when they quit medical subjects and deal with others, they are apt to forget that they are no longer lawgivers, and notably is this the case when they deal with such subjects as the arrangement of flavours in a dinner or the dishes which should be served at a pleasant feast. Rules respecting these are not based on scientific knowledge or reasoning, and can only be drawn from the practice of the most accomplished gastronomes and the most skilful cooks. Doctors do not therefore necessarily speak with any special authority in this matter, but nevertheless they are sometimes not a little dogmatic. Sir Henry Thompson, who had some knowledge, but not a large knowledge, of gastronomy, was rather positive, and Mr. Hart, who has next to none, is still more so. He first of all describes dinners which, according to his ideas, should not be given, and then tries to set forth what a dinner should be. What he succeeds best in showing is that he himself has almost everything to learn; but it must in fairness be said that the remarks with which he begins his disquisition are sensible and worth attention. They are by no means new, and indeed have often been made before, but there is no harm in repeating them, for, as will be shown presently, much reiteration is necessary to convince the dinner-giver of his manifold errors. Mr. Hart's plaint at the beginning of his second article is against the established feast of the day, which has been attacked many a time, but which still seems dear to the hearts of free Englishmen. "Typically," says the assailant, "it runs thus:—'Clear' soup, thick soup, turbot, lobster sauce, oyster patty, sweetbreads larded, roast mutton, currant jelly, pheasant, quails," &c. Such a banquet is not perhaps so often seen as it was some years ago; but still it is served more frequently than it should be, as it is, in fact, only fit for undergraduates or for farmers at an annual feast; and if Mr. Hart had contented himself with setting it forth in all its naked horror, or had simply denounced it as a ponderous and ill-arranged meal, far inferior to an ordinary simple dinner, he would have done well, and might have awakened some people to a sense of their misdeeds. Unfortunately, he was not content to do this only, but determined to analyse his "typical dinner," forgetting that he was quitting his own province and venturing into that of the *chef* and the gastronome. The result is to make it clear that some culinary reformers, like improvised judges, should not give reasons. After finding fault, rightly enough, with the matinees known as thick soup and lobster-sauce, he goes on to complain of the oyster-patty, on the ground that it is generally badly made, but adds that, when really well made, "it is a costly as well as one of the most difficult achievements of skilled cookery." He might as well have said that a rissole is an achievement of skilled cookery. The insipid little puffs of paste to which, for some incomprehensible reason, British matrons and British cooks are so devoted, rarely appear at French tables, and, when they do appear, are served as *hors d'œuvres* and not as *entrées*. Not a little amusing would it be to see the face of a great cook who was told that a *bouchée d'huîtres* was one of the most difficult achievements of his art. Very different, however, would be the views of any skilled man respecting the second *entrée* mentioned, in talking of which Mr. Hart is almost as unfortunate as he is in speaking of the first. Having praised where he ought to have condemned without reserve, he condemns absolutely where he ought to praise. He says that the extraordinary partiality for sweetbreads shown in English menus "must greatly surprise foreigners, who can hardly have imagined that so universally prevailing a sentiment existed in this country in favour of the thymus gland of the calf for the festive dinner-table." We doubt whether it can greatly surprise foreigners, as they have a strong liking for the thymus gland themselves. Even the grave *Dictionnaire de l'Académie* speaks of it as "*un manger assez délicat*," and a good many receipts for preparing it are to be found in French cookery-books. It would not probably be served at an entertainment of the first order, and no doubt English cooks

are much too fond of it; but, as every one who has studied the French kitchen knows, it combines admirably with certain sauces, into the mysteries of which we need not enter, as they are lightly flavoured by a certain bulb which is supposed to be held in horror by all but coarse-minded people, though as a matter of fact it is used for a large number of dishes by the best cooks. To speak of the "thymus gland" as Mr. Hart does only shows how little attention he has given to culinary subjects.

To follow him further in his analysis of the typical English dinner can hardly be necessary, since he blunders so about the most important portion, the *entrées*. As might be expected, when he abandons destructive criticism, and, having said what a dinner should not be, goes on to show what a dinner should be, he is still more unhappy. He begins by bidding the mistress of the house who would fain give a good dinner study Brillat Savarin, Hayward, and Walker, from not one of whom, as it happens, can any practical knowledge of how to frame an ordinary *menu* be obtained. Mr. Hayward's bright essay must please all who read it, and the "Original" is, as every one knows, quaint and amusing; but vainly will the hapless housewife search either for the information she wants. As for Brillat Savarin's *menus*, they were pronounced long ago by a very great authority to be "écourtés, vulgaires, quelquefois impraticables," and nowadays would seem almost ridiculous. What would be thought, for instance, of the following feast?—1. A large fowl stuffed with truffles "jusqu'à sa conversion en sphéroïde." 2. A huge pâté de foie gras. 3. A large carp "à la Chambord," i.e. with a garnish of quenelles, mushrooms, and truffles in brown sauce. 4. Truffled quails. 5. A stuffed pike, with crayfish sauce. 6. A pheasant stuffed with a forcemeat of woodcocks. 7. Asparagus. 8. Orlolans flavoured with garlic. 9. Méringues. Certainly the master of a house who found that his wife's study of classical authorities resulted in such a bill of fare as this—which, it may be observed, is Brillat Savarin's proudest effort—would pray for a return to the sweetbreads and the saddle of mutton; and the mistress herself, when she got her weekly bills, would wish devoutly that the distinguished Frenchman had not put off till he was seventy years old that one visit to church which caused his death. Mr. Hart should have examined his authorities more carefully before he referred unsuspecting ladies to them; and we may add that he should have examined his cookery-books more carefully before he made some of the other suggestions which are contained in his remarkable essay. Thus, after saying that fish should be "rather provocative of appetite, and a refreshing vehicle of flavour, than in itself a substantial satisfaction to hunger," he says that a "sole normande," and some other preparations which he names, "should be among the first and simplest suggestions which should occur to the mind in selecting a course of fish." Now Sole à la normande is served with a very rich sauce, composed of fish stock thickened with yoke of egg, and with a garnish consisting of mushrooms, oysters, mussels, fried crusts of bread, and fried smelts, to which luxurious ragout tails of crayfish or chopped lobster are occasionally added. An admirable dish it is; but unctuous and satisfying in a high degree. Even a man in training would hardly look upon it as merely provocative of appetite; and probably Mr. Hart has been the first, and will be the last, to take this view of a *plat* which may make rash men fit for very little more at dinner. Of his other observations there is scarcely any necessity to speak, as he obviously knows very little of the subject that he has attempted to treat. From the positive manner in which he writes he appears to think that a medical man has what we may term an *ex officio* knowledge of cookery. A short course of study will convince him and those of his brethren who may incline to this opinion that, to obtain this knowledge, medical men must travel by the same road as other people.

He is however, as we have said, quite right when he denounces the ordinary English dinner; and, if he had refrained from attempting explanation and criticism, his anathema would have carried some weight. Such denunciations of senseless adherence to a foolish practice are still needed; for, though the extravagance, bad arrangement, and general nastiness of the typical English dinner have been pointed out again and again, reform proceeds but slowly; and Englishmen seem to cling desperately to the practice of giving a hybrid meal, originally devised by some ingenious people who, without at all understanding the French repast, endeavoured to combine it with the English one and succeed in spoiling both. Not merely ordinary dinner-givers, but those who are supposed to have specially studied how to arrange and serve dinners, seem unable to learn anything, though patent faults have so often been complained of. A curious instance of this persistent disposition to err is afforded in a work recently published, called *Warne's Model Housekeeper*, intended as a companion to *Warne's Cookery Book*, of which a new edition has just appeared. The editor of the first-named volume states that it has been in course of preparation for more than three years, and as so much care has been taken, those who want to know what to give their friends will probably turn anxiously to the bills of fare which are offered. They will find that there has been a rigid determination to adhere to the preposterous old system. Here is what the model housekeeper, after three years' consideration, has to suggest for the month of January:—"Turtle soup; clear gravy soup; cod's head and shoulders; cutlets of sole; tendons de veau; stewed pigeons; rissoles; filets of duck; saddle of mutton; roast turkey; potatoes; sea-kale; broccoli; partridges; grouse, &c." To criticize such a bill of fare would be a mere waste of time. Where everything is wrong it would

be useless to select any one special feature for blame; but, to show what a French dinner really is, and how entirely it differs from the marvellous English caricature, we will give the *menu* of a dinner which was arranged by a French gastronome of considerable knowledge. It is as follows, the "Sorbet au rhum," which is now so common, being intentionally omitted:—Consommé; Turbot, sauce Hollandaise; Filet de bœuf, braisé au jus; Suprême de volaille aux truffes; Filets de canards sauvages à la Bigarade; Pain de foie gras (cold); Pluviers rôtis; Salade de légumes, &c. It is to be observed that this dinner, though certainly not of the most elaborate kind, can only be served by a very good cook, and that, though scarcely dearer than the terrible banquet of the *Model Housekeeper*, it is liable to objection on the score of expense. A good *menu*, however, is always to some extent elastic, and on an occasion when the services of a first-class cook were not obtainable, and when economy had to be considered, the author of this one modified it by substituting filets of rabbits for the *suprême* and Poullets au cresson for the plovers. The dinner thus changed is considerably cheaper than that given in Warne, and both differ in every respect from the wonderful feast which it has taken three years to arrange. It is to be feared, however, that the English bill of fare only reflects with some exaggeration what the English host too often thinks it fitting to offer to his friends under the impression that he is giving them a French dinner, and doctors will render no small service to the community if, after proving that such a meal is unhealthy, they will point to good examples, and will show how repasts which are much more digestible and much nicer may be arranged. To do this, however, they must be willing to study the traditions and practice of the French kitchen, and they must not assume that a knowledge of the chemistry of food enables them to dogmatize about the pleasures of the table.

DECAYED CORPORATIONS.

THE Report of the Commission which was issued nearly four years ago, at the instance of Sir Charles Dilke, to inquire into the present state of the municipal corporations of England and Wales which have hitherto escaped the operation of reform, will not gratify those who long for stories of malversation and unholy gains. The successors of those who fifty or sixty years ago used to compile Black Books, Red Books, and other records of improperly acquired wealth will not find its perusal refreshing to their patriotic and virtuous souls. There is here entered no corporation like that of Queenborough, which in 1835 could boast of a revenue of fifteen thousand a year. The historically and dramatically famed hamlet in the Isle of Sheppey has indeed—thanks to the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway—become something less of a mere name than it was. But the treacherous oyster-beds which once made its corporate wealth have deserted it, or have passed into other hands; and Queenborough, though it is still far from being the poorest of municipal bodies, cannot boast of more than half as many hundreds of annual income as it once possessed thousands. Of all the rest (and there are some scores of them), only one has an income much exceeding a thousand pounds annually. This is the borough of Sutton Coldfield, of Falstaffian fame, which seems to be amply estated, and has nearly four thousand a year. No accusation of corrupt management is, however, brought against Sutton Coldfield, though, as is not surprising, those who have not a finger in the pie think that they ought to have, and some would have the pie itself constructed on a different model.

For the most part, the corporations enumerated in this Report come under three different classes, and each class is fertile in interest to those who can find pleasure in the contemplation of the changing forms and aspects of national life. There are boroughs in the list such as Alnwick, Lewes, Henley, and perhaps half a dozen others, which are still, if not exactly important towns, at any rate towns well enough to do in the world, counting their inhabitants by the thousand, and very far indeed from extinction. The curious thing in this class is that the corporation, though it exists and sometimes has fair property and influence, has in some odd way fallen apart from its natural duties, owing sometimes to vice of constitution, sometimes to mere accident, and remains a useless or nearly useless anomaly, while modern bodies such as local Boards perform with less dignity and appropriateness the functions which it ought to fulfil. In this case, of course, the obvious thing to do is to restore the corporation to its proper position. But the majority of the places enumerated in the list are not in this case. Some of them are towns which have to all appearance hopelessly lost all semblance of township, and are simply sleepy villages, sometimes with a hundred or a couple of hundred houses, sometimes with not more than half a dozen. No one who has wandered about the precincts of Winchelsea, or Orford, or Pevensey, or Dunwich, or Corfe Castle, but knows the type of this kind—a place which brings the fairy tales of his youth before him and in which it seems to be always afternoon. Last of all come places like Caerwys and Dinas and half a dozen other Welsh boroughs, where almost all character of what can fairly be called a community is lost, though in not a few cases the formalities of communal life and government are kept up. These last two classes naturally are those which in the Report are most fertile in interesting details. Sometimes indeed they have allowed their corporations wholly to expire, the process of decay being so gradual that the exact moment when life dis-

appeared is not known. At Fowey—not a place in the last gasp either—all that can be said is that somehow or other the corporation died between 1835 and 1850, all efforts to ascertain any more precise date being apparently futile. Newtown, in the Isle of Wight, a mere hamlet which pedestrians may remember on the lower road from Yarmouth to Newport, expired in a municipal sense in 1837. It died in the odour of sanctity, handing over its effects to build a church; while the regalia, and, if we remember rightly (though it is not mentioned in the Report), some furniture of merit, passed to Swainston, the seat of the Simeons. Bossiny, which men may better know by the name of Tintagel, though there is a difference, came to an end somewhat later and in a less regular manner. The last mayor is said still to collect for his own use certain infinitesimal tolls. A tiny slice of land with some buildings is in the possession of a tenant who (happy man!) has paid no rent for thirty years, for the tolerably sufficient reason that there is no one to pay it to; and the mace and cup are believed to be in the keeping of one Mr. Brown. In short, Bossiny, municipally speaking, has wasted away. Caerwysle had, even in 1835, forgotten for centuries that it had a corporation, and has not taken the trouble to revive it since. Caerwys, another Flint borough, had, at the date of the former inquiry, an outward and visible sign of a corporation in the shape of a crier; but even he has now passed away. Castle Rising is dead. Rhuddlan is dead. So is Criccieth; so is Grampound. Indeed, a list of dead corporations could be prolonged to a considerable length.

There are, however, not a few places where corporate apparatus for municipal government does still exist, though it performs next to no functions. The most curious, perhaps, of all these is Dinas, in Merionethshire. Dinas has no property, and its corporation does not seem to have exercised, at any rate for a very long time, any particular function, except that the mayor claimed to sit as a magistrate. But the lord of the manor felt that it increased his dignity that Dinas should be corporate, and he accordingly kept the corporation, just as he might have kept a yacht or a pack of hounds, out of his own pocket, paying no inconsiderable stamp duties, &c., for the proceeding. At Kenfig, a village of some five hundred inhabitants near Bridgend in Glamorganshire, a very complete corporation exists. The property of this body extends to no less than 1,200 acres—which, it is fair to add, are only rough open ground. There are a portreeve, a constable of the castle, ten aldermen, a recorder, haywards, ale-tasters, constables, a town-hall, and a corporation rabbit-warren. It may be a little disturbing to modern notions to find that the surplus revenue of Kenfig is divided among the burgesses; but, as the gross income is estimated at 135*l.* per annum, it must be acknowledged that the individual amount of lucre is not great. Corfe Castle, on the occasion of the first inquiry—which, or one like it, is ridiculed admirably in *Crotchet Castle*—covered itself with glory by stoutly refusing information. Unless the then incumbents managed to annex most of the property, of which there is no hint, the reason for refusal could hardly have been any consciousness of malversation. The corporation of Corfe Castle is fully organized, but it does not appear to possess so much as twenty pounds a year. Nevertheless there is not only a mayor, barons, jurors, &c., but an ale-taster and a carnator, an officer whose office—under its modern title of sanitary inspector, or inspector of markets—some good folks doubtless imagine to be an invention of modern wisdom. At Harton—i.e. Hartland in Devonshire—there is no carnator, but there is a bread-weigher and, in addition, there is a scavenger. Harton has some small property which appears to be honestly applied to purposes of paving and so forth. Its officers have no salary, and it is therefore only fair that they should have, as in most cases they are reported to have, no duty.

We have said that any idea of corrupt bodies rolling in misapplied wealth is conclusively dispelled by this Report. The entire income of the sixty-three corporations whose revenue is scheduled amounts to about fifteen thousand a year—just that of Queenborough alone in its palmy days—and of this a single corporation, Sutton Coldfield, has more than one-fourth. The small sums which, ranging from thirty shillings to a few hundreds, come in to the others appear to be for the most part applied in one way or another to actual public service. Here and there a small residue is divided among the corporators, and a very few dinners and feasts are still given; but these things are decidedly the exception, and the sums so spent probably do not amount to five hundred a year for the whole kingdom. The actual complaints made to the Commissioners were also far from serious, often being the result merely of the usual local squabbles which constantly occur in small places. The Commissioners, however, may claim to have established three things. First, they have shown that there are a large number of purely functionless bodies in the kingdom, bodies for which in the circumstances no function is possible or at least obvious, and which sometimes, though not always, possess a little property which may be said to be at present wasted. Secondly, they have proved that in many cases the mode of election of the corporation is unsatisfactory, being by nomination of some person, by co-optation, or by other close forms of selection. Thirdly, they have shown that, in a few cases, there are corporations which have plenty of work to do and plenty of means to do it, but which, as a matter of fact, and for various causes, do not do it. In the last case—perhaps in the last two cases—the remedy is easy and obvious; in the former it is a question whether any remedy is required. The gain of interfering with such corporations as those of Kenfig, and Dinas, and Fordwich, is infinitesimal,

and therefore interference (which means abolition) seems to be pure vandalism. The surplus funds might, as the Commissioners recommend, be very well handed over to the Charity Commission. But when this is done, it is not clear why Kenfig should not retain its portreeve and Corfe Castle its carnator. There is, moreover, one remark of the Commissioners which hardly, we think, shows the worldly wisdom to be expected from such a body. They say, as an argument for change, that “it has been mentioned to them as an evil arising from the close character of the elections, that different parties in politics and religion have not the opportunity of being represented on the corporation, and that persons holding views differing from the majority of the existing members are seldom elected.” This is an evil certainly. But would the fullest application of the Municipal Acts remedy it? We are inclined to doubt it. There is a borough considerably larger than Kenfig or Dinas, and situate not a thousand miles from Sutton Coldfield, where it is credibly reported that members of a party different from the majority have exceedingly little chance of office under the corporation or of membership of it. There is another borough (more fortunate than Queenborough in having preserved its connexion with oysters), where it was reported after last autumn’s municipal elections that a new party having come into power, they had on the American system made a clean sweep of every official, from town-clerk to scavenger, and put, as the seventeenth century would have phrased it, “honest men” in their places. Perhaps both these reports are libels, but they are sufficiently in accordance with human nature (which you can neither expel with a fork nor with an Act of Parliament) to make them at least probable. However, we shall be glad if the anticipations of the Commissioners are fulfilled. To the constructive part of their scheme, that which proposes to make bodies which are at present nearly useless useful in the direct sense of their original constitution, no one can wish anything but success.

REPORTERS AT EXECUTIONS.

DURING Mr. Cross’s tenure of the office of Home Secretary he has more than once been appealed to, in different senses, on the question of the admission of strangers to be present at executions. When the practice of public hanging was first given up there was, as any one acquainted with English idiosyncrasies might have anticipated, a remarkable eagerness shown for a certain time and by a certain class of persons to obtain this admission. Public executions had for some time ceased to be a favourite amusement with Lord Tom Noddy, or even with persons of less exalted rank; but as soon as admission to private executions became a kind of privilege there were not wanting people who sought for it eagerly enough. Sheriffs and Visiting Justices vacillated a good deal in regard to the principle of admission or exclusion; but for some time it was more or less of an understood thing that “representatives of the press” were allowed. Thereupon followed two very simple and easily foreseen consequences. In the first place, the representatives of the press, as in duty bound, strove to compensate the mass of their readers as much as possible for the loss of their old amusement of beholding the dying struggles of a criminal. The kind of representative of the press who is generally detailed for such duties is nothing if not picturesque, and very picturesque indeed some of these gentlemen manage to be. But this was not all. The press is a very vague term, and the exact definition and verification of a representative of it is by no means easy. Local men might be known, but the exclusion of representatives of the press who were not local would have been illogical. It was obviously not at all difficult for a not very scrupulous person with a hankering for horrors to represent himself as a commissioner of the “Little Pedlington Gazette” or the “Kennaghair Banner,” and the Sheriffs or the governor of the gaol had for the most part too much to do to examine his credentials very narrowly. A practice, and we think a very praiseworthy practice, has therefore grown up of rigidly excluding all but official personages who have a real duty to discharge. Mr. Cross, the Home Office having no direct control over the arrangements of executions, has not much to do with the matter. He did, we think, once issue an eccentric order which occasioned a good deal of amusement at the time, authorizing the admittance of relations of the prisoner to witness his more or less unhappy despatch. But for the most part, as we have said, the Sheriff is theoretically supreme over the details of the execution itself, and the Visiting Justices, though less supreme than they once were, are still nominally masters of the building where it takes place.

A few days ago a man named Cassidy was executed at Manchester for a peculiarly brutal murder, and the representatives of the press were excluded. Outside observers who do not share the taste for hanging may yet have noticed that the more brutal the crime the more lively is the interest that is felt in the criminal. Some good people in Manchester appear to have been aggrieved at their exclusion and the exclusion of the “descriptive” reporters who might have given them something to gloat over. The necessary coroner’s inquest, moreover, gave an opportunity of putting this discontent into shape. There is very often a kind of undefined grudge between coroners and the more powerful departments of the law; and something of the kind seems to have manifested itself on this occasion. A juryman took it into his head that Cassidy had had too long a drop—a thing which, still speaking as mere outside observers,

we had always considered to be rather a favour than a hardship. The Governor of the gaol was badgered to say how many feet and inches the drop really was; and, his answers not being considered satisfactory, Mr. Hibbert put a question to Mr. Cross on the subject, to which practically two answers were given, on Thursday in last week and on Monday in this, the second being in reply to an inquiry made, not by Mr. Hibbert, but by Mr. Pease. This last was, at least as reported, not quite so satisfactory as the former. It contained, indeed, the important fact that the drop was not 9 feet 6 inches, as had been alleged, but 8 feet; and this will, we hope, satisfy the Manchester critics, who are probably better acquainted than we are with the exact height from which it is proper to conduct the operation. But, whereas in his first answer Mr. Cross seems to have been quite firm as to the question of admission of reporters in the second his reply was ambiguous, not to say weak. He said to Mr. Hibbert that it had been found that the admission of reporters invariably led to the publication of details which must have a bad effect; that the Sheriff and the Visiting Justices were the actual, and fully sufficient, arbiters of the matter; and that he could not see that it was desirable to interfere with their decision. But the answer to Mr. Pease included, as reported, the statement that "he would communicate with the authorities and see what could be done." Now, as in the case before him reporters were excluded, it is clear that the only thing that "could be done" is not to exclude reporters.

If this is a correct interpretation of Mr. Cross's words, we venture to think that he has made a great mistake in abandoning his first position. We cannot see a single argument of weight for the admission of representatives of the press on such an occasion. It is idle to pretend that such admission is required to prevent irregularities. Considering that an execution is practically controlled by three different authorities, the gaol officials, the Visiting Justices, and the Sheriff, each of which is more or less independent of, and therefore competent to act as a check on the others, and that the inquest comes in as a fourth, it is pretty certain that there can be no danger of any impropriety occurring which the presence of half a dozen or half a hundred picturesque scribes with note-books would do anything to prevent. On the other hand, the presence of the picturesque gentlemen and their note-books goes far to neutralize whatever good was expected or intended from the prohibition of public executions. It does away with the mystery, or semi-mystery, of the death, which has no insignificant effect in increasing its terror. And it substitutes for whatever there was degrading in the old practice a degrading influence somewhat different, it may be, in kind, but by no means less bad in degree, and extending to a much larger number of persons. The largest crowd that ever pressed round an execution is a mere insignificant handful compared to the number of readers, not merely of the metropolitan journals, but of those of towns such as Manchester. To these masses of readers the details of the prisoner's mental and bodily suffering are given, drawn by pens which aim at nothing but glaring colours and prominent outlines. It is impossible that such accounts should have the least deterrent or reformatory influence, and it is very possible indeed that they may have no small influence in degrading the taste and cultivating the appetite for coarse food. If Mr. Cross really thinks as he thought some time ago, that it would be a comfort to the relatives of a ne'er-do-weel to be quite sure of his having gone over to the majority, let him by all means make arrangements for their admission, always taking care that the relationship is sufficiently made out. But if the general public have no need to see with their actual bodily eyes the ghastly preliminaries and circumstances of the last act of the law, no more have they any need to see them through the telescope of a "smart paragraphist," as advertisements sometimes describe the class of men of letters who affect this department of literary work. The smart paragraphist is an exceedingly doubtful moral influence in such a case; as an æsthetic influence he is not doubtful at all. All that the public has a right to know, when it has once decided on the principle of the privacy of executions, is that these executions have been carried out with due skill and on the right person. As we have seen, the law provides official witnesses of so diverse a character, appointed in such different ways, and representing so many different classes of the community, that there is no reasonable cause whatever to doubt the propriety of the arrangements carried on under their supervision. It has taken these authorities some time to come to the sensible conclusion that it is no part of their duty to furnish local newspapers with exciting "copy," or to stimulate the local youth to "play Peace" with one another, as happened not long ago, by scientific descriptions of the method of suspending criminals by their necks until they are dead. It would be a thousand pities if this conclusion, which is in every way for the public good, should not receive the support it deserves from the Government and the public themselves.

OLEOMARGARINE.

THE correspondence just published concerning the manufacture of oleomargarine in the United States, has a considerable and not altogether a pleasant interest. Just as in the American tongue window-blinds mean venetians, and boots nothing under a Wellington, so oleomargarine is a fine name—for which it would seem, however, that a Frenchman, and not an American, is responsible—given to an article of commerce which

there is too much reason to fear is largely sold as the best butter, while it has really no more relation to butter than pinchbeck has to gold. A certain M. Mège, it appears, some time ago hit upon an ingenious process, which is grandiloquently indicated in a number of the *New York Advertiser*, dated 2nd of February, 1878. "The rapid growth of the business" (of manufacturing sham butter), said this paper, "in this country indicates very clearly that the discovery made by M. Mège, who established the identity of the limpid and odourless oil of fresh beef fat with the oily element of cow's milk, came in time to meet a present want, just as petroleum was discovered when the whale-fishing began to languish, and gold when the world's supply of the precious metal was running short." In the same way, a grocer emancipated from ordinary prejudices might speak of the fortunate discovery of sand when the supply of sugar began to languish, or of the "present want" of genuine tea being happily met by an ingenious manipulation of sloe-leaves. The processes by which M. Mège arrived at what are perhaps not unjustly called "his extraordinary results" have, we are told, "been vividly described by M. Felix Blondel, in a paper published in the *Moniteur Scientifique*." "At his farm in Vincennes M. Mège placed several milch cows on a strict diet, found that they soon decreased in weight and in the yield of milk; but their milk always contained butter. This led to the conclusion that the butter was produced from the fat of the animal, which, being re-absorbed and carried into the circulation, was deprived of its stearine by respiratory combustion, and furnished its oleomargarine to the udders, when, under the influence of the mammary pepsin, it was changed into butyric oleomargarine—that is to say, into butter." After this assumption, or hint, that oleomargarine is identical with butter, one is not surprised to learn that "the way was then opened to the production of an article precisely the same as milk-butter." In September of last year, Consul-General Archibald, of New York, wrote in a letter to the Foreign Office concerning the manufacture of this "article precisely the same as milk-butter," that, "during the last two years, the quantity of fat manufactured into oleomargarine and oleomargarine-butter by the Commercial Manufacturing Company has been, it is stated on reliable authority, about 200,000 lbs. per week, yielding 80,000 lbs. of oil and butter. Of this, about 75 per cent., or 60,000 lbs. per week was the oil product 'oleomargarine,' all of which was exported, in barrels or tierces, for the most part under the name of 'oleomargarine,' but sometimes as 'butter fat,' or simply as 'oil.'" Thus the Company above named has exported alone about 3,000,000 lbs. annually; but to that must be added an equal quantity exported by outside manufacturers. The shipments of the outside manufacturers "are made to Hamburg, Bremen, and other German ports, also to Rotterdam, but none, as I am informed, to the United Kingdom." It is, however, natural to conclude that some of it finds its way to the United Kingdom in addition to the products of the Commercial Manufacturing Company, which, from a place called Oss, where they undergo a process which is intended to make them look and taste more like real butter, are reshipped "to France and England, but chiefly to England, under what designation I am unable to ascertain." Probably, it will be thought, under most designations which are calculated to persuade a purchaser that he is buying the purest and most carefully made milk butter. It is not easy, Consul-General Archibald goes on to observe, to ascertain if shipments of this article from New York are sometimes made as of genuine butter; but, from inquiries made of the steamship Companies, he has discovered that "the consignments of the butter products are chiefly made by their steamers under the designation of 'butterine.' The article is put up in half tubs or firkins in precisely the same way as butter, and the tubs are enclosed in crates to protect them from injury on the voyage. It is also made up into 1 lb. pats covered by muslin or thin cotton wrappers, stamped as genuine butter is stamped, and packed in boxes for shipment."

These facts are significant enough, and with his account of them Mr. Archibald transmits various extracts relating to the manufacture of oleomargarine and to its healthfulness as an article of food. Opinions naturally differ on this point. The Prospectus of the Commercial Manufacturing Company backs its appreciation of its own wares by a quotation from the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, under the heading "Butter," which points out that, according to French official reports, there is more in the way of food to be got out of artificial than out of real butter, and that the substitute is perfectly wholesome. It also observes that the same octroi duties are imposed on the sham as on the genuine article in France; and asserts that "there can be no doubt that a pure, sweet fat, such as is manufactured by the process of M. Mège-Mouries, is a safer and more wholesome article than the unsavoury, rancid butter which is sold so freely among the poorer classes." This, considering the qualities of "unsavoury, rancid butter," is perhaps a tolerably safe assertion, which rests, however, upon the assumption that the mechanical butter, so to call it, is pure and sweet. This assumption was not accepted by Mr. Michels who in 1878 addressed a letter to the *American Dairyman*, in which he gave an alarming account of a microscopical examination which he had made of specimens of true butter and of oleomargarine. He found, he said, striking differences between them, and was of opinion that the animal fats from which oleomargarine was made were probably so substantially uncooked that poisonous elements or living parasites might be retained in an active form in the oleomargarine as finally supplied to consumers.

He also observed that "the prospectus of the companies states that the caul fat of the ox only is used for making oleomargarine, but I have reason to believe that the refuse fat of at least one pork-packing establishment is used. Thus already a departure is made from the programme, and as the trade increases fat of every description will probably be offered for sale, and even that from the carcases of diseased animals may be purchased without guilty knowledge by the managers."

Mr. Michels was answered in the *New York Times* by Professor Mott, who controverted all his assertions, and quoted a letter from Professor Arnold, of the Medical Department, University of New York, who had "made a careful microscopical examination of the sample of caul fat, stearine, and oleomargarine which you placed in my hands. These substances are entirely free from any impurity or injurious material detectable by the microscope. I have also submitted the oleomargarine butter to a similar examination, comparing it with natural butter, and find the oleomargarine butter to consist of exceedingly clear and beautiful oil globules, a sufficient proof of its purity." "Exceedingly pure and beautiful oil globules" are, no doubt, in some conjunctions a very desirable article of food; but, so far as we know, they are certainly not butter. The controversy took a more lively turn in the reply to Professor Mott's answer, which appeared in due course in the *American Dairymen*, and in the course of which this somewhat curious statement by Mr. Michels was cited. "Mr. Michels says that, on applying to the *New York Times* Office, he was candidly told by the editor-in-chief that the letter to which Dr. Mott had signed his name was nothing but an advertisement from the oleomargarine factory; that, in fact, they had received hundreds of dollars for its insertion, and that therefore no reply would be permitted to me. . . . I state these facts and leave them without comment; for if honoured names and great institutions can thus be used to advertise a grease factory, abuse rather than praise must be welcome from such a source." The facts, if correctly stated, are certainly startling enough. The writer of the reply just quoted makes in the course of his long letter one remark which is peculiarly to the point. "If," he says, "as is stated, a single manufactory in New York is producing 100,000 lbs. a day of the compound (and there are seven of these concerns in that city, to say nothing of others in different localities) how long will it take to drive genuine butter out of the market, especially if, as is claimed, the bogus stuff can be so scented and flavoured as to prevent its being distinguished by the taste or by other means than a scientific examination?" Even the test of a scientific examination cannot be implicitly relied on, not only because of such differences in the opinions of experts as have been shown by the foregoing extracts, but because also the specimens submitted may differ. We remember a case in which a certain article was submitted for analysis by its proprietors to a distinguished analyst, who thoughtfully provided himself with another sample of it bought in market overt. His report on the two samples pleased the proprietors so much that they kept it entirely and solely for their private entertainment.

While it may be uncertain whether or how far the substance called oleomargarine is objectionable as an article of food, it is quite certain that it is not butter, and it is to be feared, equally certain that it is extensively sold as butter of exceptionally prime quality at exceptionally high prices. Many years ago Dr. Wynter revealed some depths of iniquity in the adulteration trade, the meanest perhaps, if not the most dangerous, of which was that P.D., or pepper-dust, was frequently sold as pepper, and D.P.D., or dust of pepper dust, as either pepper dust or pepper itself. Something like this, in addition to what is already done with oleomargarine, might well have happened in this case if the matter had not been made public in a Parliamentary paper. It is to be hoped that now that this has been done the thing will not be allowed to drop.

THE MONEY MARKET.

THERE is much discussion in the City concerning the prospects of the money market. The value of money so largely affects all kinds of business in which the use of borrowed capital is necessary, that the matter is one of great practical moment. Low rates favour speculative enterprise, and, when trade is improving, encourage people to extend their transactions. On the other hand, when bankers exact high terms for the accommodation they afford their customers, the latter have to consider carefully whether the undertakings in which they are about to embark will bear the cost. In the early period of a trade revival, then, cheap money is of great advantage. During the past two months the course of the money market has seemed anomalous, and even yet there is much uncertainty as to the prospects of the immediate future. In reality, however, there is nothing puzzling, or even extraordinary, in what has occurred. During the long depression immense sums of loanable capital had accumulated in the banks throughout the country, and rates in consequence had fallen to a very low level. This continued until the export of gold to the United States became large, when gradually the value of money began to rise. The usual autumn outflow of coin to the provinces gave additional impetus to the movement. We can trace all this very clearly in the weekly returns of the Bank of England. At the end of July the coin and bullion in the Bank amounted to 35,900,000*l.*; at the

end of December they had fallen to 27,600,000*l.*, showing a decrease of over 8½ millions. At the end of July, again, the open market rate for three-months' bank bills was ½ per cent.; at the end of December the rate had risen to 2½ per cent. We thus see how the value of money kept pace with the diminution in the stock of coin and bullion. Before the old year ended the gold export to the United States had ceased; and, with the opening of the new year, the dividend payments let loose funds which for some time before had been accumulating; while the banks, having made up their accounts and shown satisfactory balances, felt at liberty to reduce them again. The result, as might have been expected, was an abundance of money in the loan market, and consequently a fall in its value. Before the end of January the open market rate for three-months' bank bills had gone down to 1½ per cent. With February, however, a fresh rise began; and in the middle of the present week three-months' bank bills were quoted outside as high as 2½ per cent. The question is, will this upward movement continue, or is it merely temporary? Business men, and many of the writers of City articles, have been surprised because rates fell so suddenly and heavily last month. They argued that the greater activity of trade, having enhanced the value of money in the autumn, ought to have kept it up in January, and they were at a loss to account for the fall. Now they reason that, bills being still scarce, the upward movement is entirely artificial, and will not last beyond the end of next month. In all this there is utter misconception. The greater activity of trade had little or nothing to do with the enhancement of the value of money last autumn, which, as we have just shown, was caused by the export of gold to the United States. As a matter of fact, a trade revival in its early stages scarcely affects the money market. The preceding period of depression has weeded out the weak traders who depended entirely upon credit, but it has left the strong men who have capital of their own. Moreover, it has enforced upon them economies in all departments, and thus has made possible a large production at a small cost. It has also taught extreme caution; and for a considerable time men refuse to trust others, parting with their goods only for cash. It is not until the revival has passed out of the stage in which doubts are entertained of its permanence, and has entered upon that in which everybody is sanguinely looking forward to making his fortune and is equally hopeful of his neighbours, that it reacts upon the value of money. Then wages run up bound by hand, prices become exorbitant, the cost of production is greatly increased, while business is extended in all directions, and transactions are largely multiplied; the consequence of all which is that every one begins to need additional capital. We are still far from this stage, and therefore may leave out of consideration the greater activity of trade.

The causes which during the past two or three weeks have been sending up the value of money are plain enough. First, and most potent for the moment, is the collection of the revenue. When Mr. Lowe, during his Chancellorship of the Exchequer, provided himself with a surplus by collecting five quarters' taxes in a single twelvemonth, he made a change which exercises an unforeseen influence on the money market every February and March. His innovation throws into the first three months of the year so large a proportion of the revenue payments that it takes out of the open market much of the loanable capital, and hands it over to the Bank of England. For example, on New Year's Day, 1879, the Government deposits in the Bank of England amounted to 4,900,000*l.*; on March 26 they had risen to eleven millions. In the three months, that is, over six millions had been taken out of the open market and lodged in the Bank of England. This transference of loanable capital diminished the lending power of the bill-brokers and the smaller credit houses, while it increased enormously the Bank's control of the market. In the present year the Government deposits have risen from 4,100,000*l.* on January 21 to 7,300,000*l.* on February 18, being an increase of 3,200,000*l.* in four weeks. And in these four weeks the outer market rate went up more than one-half per cent. By the end of March another four millions may be expected to be added to the Government deposits, and with the addition it may be reasonably assumed that the value of money will tend upwards. A variety of other temporary causes are aiding this one. Since the beginning of the year speculation on the Stock Exchange has assumed exceptionally large proportions, and as each fortnightly settlement comes round, the demand for loans, to carry over transactions, is active. The settlement immediately preceding that which was concluded yesterday was, we believe, the heaviest on record, and in many cases the charges made for carrying over were extremely onerous. Since then speculation has received a check; and at one time there was a considerable fall of prices, which is said to have lightened the account. But this week there has been a recovery, and there are symptoms that speculation will make a fresh start. If so, the demand for advances will continue. Another circumstance tending to keep up rates is the continuous export of gold. The outflow to the United States, as we remarked above, ceased before Christmas, and is not likely to begin again for the present. But week after week small sums are taken for Egypt and South America, and though the sums in each case are small, in the aggregate they reach a considerable amount. It is true that the stock of coin and bullion in the Bank of England has increased since the beginning of the year; but it has done so only because gold has been returned from the provinces in such quantities as to overbalance the export. This does not really mend matters; it only brings into view what was before not apparent. Coin

which a few weeks ago was held by bankers all over the United Kingdom is now accumulated in the Bank of England. It does not make up for the export to which we have referred, nor does it really add to our resources, though it may make them more easily utilized.

The causes we have hitherto been tracing are temporary in their nature. The pressure of the revenue collection will cease at the end of next month, and shortly afterwards the Government deposits will be dispersed in dividend and other payments, and the Bank of England will lose the control over the market which it owes to their accumulation. The Stock Exchange settlements can hardly in themselves exercise any important influence upon the money market. And the export of gold, if it be confined to Egypt and South America, is a mere dribble of the international bullion movement. What, then, are the permanent causes affecting the value of money? Chief amongst them is the production of gold; and, as we have often pointed out in these columns, this has for years been decreasing. Since the United States began to prepare for the resumption of specie payments, they have used up the whole supply furnished by their own mines, and in addition they last year took about sixteen millions sterling from Europe. The appearances are that they will again this year retain their home yield. Russia and Germany are barely supplied by the produce of the Russian mines. Consequently, other gold-using countries have to depend upon Australia alone for what they need to make good the wear and tear of their coinage, and to enlarge its volume. But the production of the Australian mines has been falling off for a long time, and this year it has decreased enormously. The shipments of gold from Australia have been unusually small, and at present no more than 150,000*l.* is known to be on the way to this country—a sum which would not make good half last week's exportation. It is clear that this increasing scarcity of gold must sooner or later enhance the value of money. If Mr. Brough Smith's reports on the Wynaad district prove correct, we may no doubt hereafter expect a considerable increase of our gold supply from India; but that will take time to bring about, and we are now considering only the near future. As we have already observed, the United States will probably retain the stock they now possess, in addition to what will be raised in the present year; that is, unless we in this country bid so high as to attract gold across the Atlantic. But this would imply an extraordinary enhancement in the value of money. Money on call in New York bears five per cent. interest at this moment; and before gold could be attracted to this country, it must not only bear a higher interest here, but the cost and risk of bringing it over must also be covered. It is very clear, then, that the value of money will not be kept down by imports of gold from the United States. As regards the Continent, it is less easy to speak with any confidence. Immense quantities of Stock Exchange securities have been bought of late from France and Germany, and the natural inference would be that we are in debt to those countries; but the exchanges seem to say the contrary. There is also another class of considerations to be taken into account. Apprehensions of war in the coming summer prevail very generally. If war breaks out, it will certainly cause the transference to this country for the sake of safety of an immense loanable capital. This happened in 1870, and it will unquestionably happen again, even though we ourselves should be involved in the struggle. The natural tendency of an influx of new capital is of course to depress rates, and that tendency would assert itself in the long run, supposing the war to be short, and not to lead to the issue of immense loans. But this would only be after a while. The first consequence of an outbreak of war on a large scale would be a panic, more or less diffused, and a sudden and very great rise in the value of money. Even if war is happily avoided, there are causes for anxiety and uneasiness which may go far to check enterprise on the Continent, and may prompt timid people to remit money to this country for safety. On the other hand it is also possible that the confidence in the preservation of peace which was so strikingly exhibited by the capitalist class all through the Eastern complications, and which is still shown in spite of the increase of the German army, the attempts on the Czar's life, and the *Italia Irredenta* agitation, may continue to maintain itself. In that case, money is as likely to go to the Continent as to come thence. On the whole, it seems probable that the value of money may continue to rise next month, and that during the spring and early summer it may maintain a moderately high level.

THE CARL ROSA OPERA.

ONE of the most interesting performances given by Mr. Rosa this year is that of *Rienzi*, produced by him so successfully during his last season in London. The work itself we discussed fully on its production last year, and we need only now point out that by its being performed in the same season with *Lohengrin*, we are enabled to contrast the composer's manner of treating grand opera with the dawn of his later method of music drama. Herr Schott made his *début* in England in this opera. Though at first his voice was much affected by our climate, and he had not quite accustomed himself to the higher pitch of the orchestra, still his performance was one of exceptional merit. The accidents we have mentioned made the peculiar quality of his voice more remarkable than it was when he sang *Lohengrin*, by which time

they had been to a great extent overcome. His great *forte* as a singer is musical declamation, and most of Rienzi's music is declamatory. His fine appearance and dignified bearing are well suited to the part and he fully enters into the spirit of the many strong dramatic situations. As a minor point, but still one of some importance, we must notice his admirable horsemanship, which made the great scene of the gathering of Rienzi's troops really impressive, instead of ridiculous, as it too often is. Granted that the horse he rides is well trained, yet even a trained horse requires a good horseman to manage him, and nothing could be more skilful than Herr Schott's management of his charger, giving as he did an air of reality and life to the scene with only a few feet of space in which to manoeuvre; and he by no means brought his horse to rest when he had to sing, but kept the animal in constant movement whilst he delivered the address to the armed citizens and joined in the battle-hymn. The important character of Irene, Rienzi's sister, was taken by Mlle. Lido. All that could be done for the part by thoroughly skilful vocalization she did, but her worn voice and want of dramatic feeling prevented her from doing it justice. At times the great dramatic power of the music seemed to carry her away, and give some life to her acting and some meaning to her singing; but, on the whole, her performance was tame and spiritless. Miss Josephine Yorke was admirable as Adriano, Irene's lover; she not only sang the music thoroughly well, but acted the part with much meaning and without exaggeration. Miss Albu, who, we believe, has not appeared in London before this season, sang the small part of the Messenger of Peace. She has a beautiful voice, and has had good training; her production is excellent, and her method generally very good; even this small part shows that she has much musical feeling, and altogether she bids fair in time to take a high place amongst our English operatic singers.

Mr. Snazelle deserves great praise for his performance of Cecco del Vecchio; his admirable pantomime did much to help the general effect; we may especially notice the scene just before the excommunication of Rienzi, when Cecco and Adriano stand ready to assassinate the Tribune, the way in which Mr. Snazelle indicates by change of facial expression and of attitude the gradual repentance of Cecco during Rienzi's speech being a really fine piece of acting. The other parts were well done, the cast being—Stefano Colonna, Mr. Leslie Crotty; Paolo Orsini, Mr. Walter Bolton; Raimondo, Mr. George Conly; and Baroncelli, Mr. Dudley Thomas. The chorus were excellent throughout the opera, and the band, under Signor Randegger, admirable. We may indeed almost venture to say that a finer performance of the overture has never been heard in England. Mr. Betjemann's arrangement of the crowds was excellent; and the scene after the fight between the Colonnas and the Orsinis and the scene of the burning of the capital are triumphs of spectacular stage management.

Mr. Rosa has added Ambroise Thomas's *Mignon* to the *répertoire* of his company, and has wisely restored it to its original form by cutting out the recitatives which have been added to fit the work for the Italian opera stage and replacing them by spoken dialogue. The ear being no longer wearied by the long, tedious, laboured recitatives, the merits of the music are more apparent, and its many defects press less upon the attention. This opera also owes much of its success to the stage manager. The scene at the commencement of the first act, with the gipsy performance and Mignon's first entry, was capitally arranged. Mr. Betjemann himself playing the part of Giarno with great spirit; his powers as a violinist enabled him to play the prelude to Mignon's dance himself. An excellent figure in this scene was an old, decrepid gipsy, who acts as Giarno's factotum. The stage management of the fire scene was also very good; the crowd rush away from the house in terror on the alarm being first given; and this movement, as well as the hurry and bustle of the attempts to put the fire out, was admirably executed. Mr. Joseph Maas sang Wilhelm Meister, and the music suited him admirably; his voice, without having lost any of its beautiful quality, seems to have gained much in power, and neither hard work nor carelessness has injured his excellent vocalization, and his singing was so good all through the opera that it is difficult to select any particular instance of exceptional merit; perhaps his singing of the beautiful passage "Adieu, Mignon," was the most effective. Without being able to say that he acted the part at all, yet he must be given credit for the workmanlike way in which he walked through it. If there is not much to praise, on the other hand there is nothing to find fault with. Mr. Leslie Crotty was Lothario; he sang the music extremely well, and followed the usual colourless traditions in the histrionic representation of that gloomy and thankless part. Mr. Charles Lyall was good as Laertes; but rather too much inclined to buffoonery of a not very refined character.

On the occasion on which we heard the opera Miss Josephine Yorke sang the part of Frederick in place of Mme. Selina Dolaro, who sang the music well. Miss Georgina Burns was an admirable Filina; the quality of her voice is well suited to the music, and her fluent, easy vocalization enables her to give full expression to the sentiment of the music even in the most florid passages, whilst her acting of the part was thoroughly arch and coquettish, without ever being ungraceful or coarse. Miss Julia Gaylord made a really great artistic success as Mignon. The part suits her well, giving as it does ample display for good and varied acting without making any prolonged strain on the physical powers. Her singing was excellent, and her great power of clearly pronouncing her words and giving them their true meaning, without disfiguring the music, has never been better shown.

Thus she made a strong effect in Mignon's song, "Know'st thou that dear land"; her singing of the words "Tis there my heart so longs to live" being a triumph of true dramatic singing. As to her acting, every phase of the character was equally well shown; the sullenness under ill-treatment, the tender worshipping love, the childish merriment, or the fierce passion of jealousy—all were admirable. The general performance of band and chorus was good, though the band was not quite so well together under Mr. Perio as it is under Signor Randegger, and, further, Mr. Perio very nearly destroyed the effect of the *gavotte entr'acte* by making the pause far too long.

The English version is by Mr. Arthur Matthison, and it is by no means good. There is often a strong flavour of the style of the translations of Italian libretti generally sold in our opera houses, and very frequently the singers are obliged to alter the words, as the text is not adapted to the music. Another opera has been produced for the first time in English this season, Signor Verdi's *Aida*. The English version in this case is by Mr. Henry Hersee, and again we cannot say that the work is good. Act the second opens with this chorus:—

He comes, with plaudits welcomed
Due to the deeds he has done;
The hero, clad in armour bright,
Refulgent as the sun.
Oh! hasten, let us deck thy brows
With laurels and with blooming flowers!
The hymn of glory soon shall blend
With strains from love's soft bowers.

We regret to say also that this opera does not appear to have had the advantage of Mr. Betjemann's attention. The stage-grouping and the processions are left entirely as they were arranged at this house during the Italian season, and showed obvious signs of want of rehearsal; otherwise the performance was very good. The part of Radames suits Mr. Maas well, and he sang it admirably. Mr. George Conly was quiet and dignified as Ramphis, and his fine voice was heard to great advantage in the music of the part. Mr. O'Mahony, whom we have not heard before, sang the King. This part gives no opportunity for acting, so we are unable to form any opinion as to his dramatic powers; but he has a very beautiful voice, and a good method of singing, so that he will doubtless prove a valuable member of the company. Mr. Ludwig was good as Amonasro. Miss Yorke was, on the whole, very successful in the part of Amneris; she controlled her tendency to exaggeration of facial expression, and was quiet and dignified; she was unable to do much with the very difficult scene where Amneris listens to the trial of Radames, but wisely did not attempt to do anything beyond her powers. Miss Minnie Hauk's *Aida* we cannot praise. The strong dramatic feeling which she has shown in some parts was entirely wanting, whilst her fault of elaborate and meaningless gesture was made painfully obtrusive; nor were these mistakes in her acting redeemed by any display of good singing. Here, again, her faults seem to have grown upon her, and her singing of the part was disfigured by faulty production of the voice, affectation in phrasing, and bad pronunciation of the words. The chorus and band, under Signor Randegger, were all that could be wished; and the performance of the work, taken as a whole, quite worthy of Mr. Carl Rosa's reputation.

REVIEWS.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN DE WITT.*

WHEN, about a year ago, the tercentenary of the event which opens the history of the United Netherlands was celebrated with patriotic rejoicings from the Maas to the Ems, it must be confessed that Europe at large, and England in particular, preserved an attitude of what strongly resembled indifference towards this national jubilee. And yet, in the case of our own country at all events, there was nothing to restrain an adequate demonstration of sympathetic goodwill. The international relations between England and the Netherlands, and the sentiments which those relations have produced, have indeed been subject to an unparalleled series of violent fluctuations, differing from one another as the Puritan enthusiasm of Spenser for the cause of the Lady Belge differs from Dryden's courtly abhorrence of the ill-natured and ill-mannered descendants of the authors of the *Ambosyna* tragedy. Even in the second quarter of the present century, it was only after wishing to uphold Dutch policy, though on the side of injustice, that English popular opinion was brought to a fairly unanimous recognition of its error of judgment. In still more recent days we have been able to give ourselves up without reserve to the impressions of remoter historic memories; and one of the most brilliantly successful historical narratives composed in this generation has largely contributed to revive in Englishmen the admiration due to the great Dutch struggle for freedom, to which the aid of Elizabethan England was so tardily and so imperfectly given. A more than usually enduring phase of artistic taste and *dilettante* fashion has contributed its influence towards the same result, and had it but suited William the

Taciturn to bring about the Union of Utrecht at a more convenient season than the dead of winter, its celebration would hardly have been allowed to pass by unnoticed, except here and there, among ourselves.

It is all the more gratifying to find that the year 1879 was not to close without having produced the first instalment of an English historical work which promises to form a most valuable addition to the generally accessible sources of information concerning one of the most interesting, and at the same time most complicated, periods of Dutch political life. If Mr. Geddes has been fired by the honourable ambition of worthily carrying on the thread of Mr. Motley's labours, the conception of the *History of the Administration of John de Witt* is not the less its author's own, and his grasp of the general European history of the times with which he deals is, to say the least, as vigorous as that exhibited in the rather disappointing second volume of the *Life and Death of John of Barneveld*. We cannot, however, suppress a wish that Mr. Geddes had not thought it necessary to imitate Mr. Motley—or rather, perhaps, the inimitable old master who is primarily responsible for the fashion to which we refer—in adopting the familiarly picturesque style of historical composition. He more than once gives vent to a regret which we both understand and share, that so little should be known as to the personal life, character, and habits of the chief personage of his narrative, whom he is unable to call his hero. A Boswell or a "chatty" French memoir-writer would, as he freely avows, have been hailed by him as a godsend for enlivening his book. Other writers before Mr. Geddes have made the most of the modest *ménage* of the Grand Pensionary of Holland—consisting of John the man-servant and old Griettin the maid; and we can excuse him for clutching eagerly even at De Witt's pipe and tobacco-box, although the habit might at a venture have been assumed to have been acquired at the University of Leyden, to the threshold of whose lecture-rooms the weed is at this day no stranger. But the theme of Mr. Geddes's narrative, and the way in which he tells it, are quite attractive enough to dispense with the need of tricking it out with the tawdry ornaments of would-be humorous phrases and more or less felicitous nicknames. The *nom de scène* of "Bellicose" is at all events intended as the equivalent of the native sobriquet of Vice-Admiral de With, a personage sufficiently striking in himself; for he was on the one hand as fearless a commander as any that the Dutch navies boasted, and on the other so far from popular that the sailors "would more cheerfully toss him overboard than obey him." The constant introduction of "that rogue Musch" after this facetious fashion is less pardonably tedious; and the most impatient critic of the proceedings of the States-General must grow weary of finding them ironically paraphrased as the "intelligent," or "enlightened," or "educated mediocrities." After all, if a comical effect be desired, it is most liberally supplied by the official style of their High Mightinesses themselves, and, indeed, by the epistolary courtesies of the Dutch society of the age in general. Here, for instance, is a fragment of a letter, hardly to be termed "familiar," in which a sister, while according to custom addressing her brother as "Your Nobleness," requests him to say to "Miss Kletscher," with reference to a French maid recommended by her—

that I fear the girl is somewhat over-hasty in the head for me, thanking her nobleness for the trouble she has taken, and requesting that, if her nobleness falls in with another, she will be pleased to let your nobleness at once know, in order that your nobleness may inform me by a note.

We are, however, so thoroughly convinced that a healthy reaction in the taste of English readers of history will before long sweep away the affectations of which we complain, that we think it unnecessary to dwell further on the peculiarities of Mr. Geddes's style. It is only on occasion that he indulges in Carlylese, and when he does so, he is so painfully like his model that the effort is too severe to last. The following, for instance, reminds us of nothing so much as of those famous bits of Cambridge Greek prose the only fault in which lay in their being just a shade too Thucydidean to have been written by Thucydides:—

Hollanders and Zealanders had suffered severely from the English depredations, and this new stadholderless government lay listlessly doing nothing. Their sea-king, Tromp; why not let him, invincible yet, loose upon these English? "What, have we no government, then? Give us our captain-general, as of old."

Turning, as we very readily do, from the form to the substance of this volume, we need hardly observe that in both biographical and general historical interest it cannot fail to be surpassed by its successor or successors. John de Witt was still a young man—only thirty years of age—when in July 1653 he was sworn in to the highest office in the most powerful of the United Provinces. For five months previously he had provisionally held this post of Councillor-Pensionary, "or, as he is called in England, Grand Pensionary," of Holland, the youthful successor of such aged servants of the State as Adrian Pauw, Lord of Heemsteede, and the venerable Father Cats. Before this, De Witt had for about two years been Pensionary of his native city of Dort, to whose virtually hereditary oligarchy his family belonged; and as such he represented the town in the States of Holland when assembled at the Hague; or, more strictly speaking, it was his duty "to accompany the town's deputies to the meetings of the Provincial States, in order to advise and assist the deputies and conduct their business. In the Provincial States he collected the opinions of his group, expressed its views, and announced its vote." It was the privilege of Dort, which that town owed to its antiquity, for its

* *History of the Administration of John de Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland*. By James Geddes. Vol. I. 1623-1654. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1879.

delegates to vote first in the States of Holland; while its Pensionary acted *ex officio* as the substitute of the Grand Pensionary of the province in the case of his absence. Thus birth and merit combined to place De Witt early at the head of affairs; and he seems to have exercised a commanding influence upon them since the beginning of the year 1652, when he managed the business of a Committee on English affairs, appointed by Holland, in its usual high-handed manner, on its own account. In other words, the volume before us contains the narrative of not more than two years of De Witt's visible statesmanship; and though these include transactions of extreme importance, and at least one State paper of signal interest, De Witt's justification of his own conduct with reference to the *Acte van Seclusie*, still a more abundant harvest of personal monuments of his political activity may be looked for in the account of his tenure of power during the eventful eighteen years which followed. Mr. Geddes, it is true, has judiciously warned us that the man himself is likely to remain in a great measure hidden from our view; but his principles as well as his practice as a politician cannot but reveal themselves more clearly in the light of the events which succeeded the fortunate audacities and trickeries of the spring and summer of the year 1654. We shall be interested to see what share Mr. Geddes attributes to John de Witt in the publication entitled *Holland's Interest*, written by Peter de la Cour not long after the loss of Brazil by the Dutch, but which to a brilliant essayist has suggested "John de Witt, looking over the shoulders of his friend the author, and murmuring his daily evensong, 'De furore monarcharum libera nos Domine!'" The continuation of Mr. Geddes's *History*, before it reaches the catastrophe of the De Witts, the tragic accompaniment of the heroic resistance offered by Holland under William of Orange to the assault of two powerful monarchies, will have to give the whole story of the designs of France against the Netherlands, as well as that of the Second Anglo-Dutch War and the Triple Alliance, in which John de Witt achieved his greatest successes as a national politician. To this later period likewise belongs the completion, in so far as it can ever be said to have been completed, of the political system of which De Witt was the lifelong champion, by means of the Perpetual Edict and the Act of Harmony of the year 1667.

Already, however, in the first instalment of his work Mr. Geddes has found occasion for much valuable research, and for comments which are certainly not deficient in decisiveness. We cannot here do more than refer to the remarkably lucid introductory section entitled "De Witt's Political Environment," in which the three chief aspects of Dutch politics in the middle of the seventeenth century are sketched with a vigorous hand. The first subdivision of this section deals with the Peace of Münster and the negotiations during which, "as Aitzema puts it, the Republic laboured as if in travail in ushering the Peace into the world." The conclusion of the Peace was a triumph of the oligarchy of Holland over the views of the House of Orange upheld by faithful Zeeland, and over the policy of the French alliance; and it opens, as Mr. Geddes shows, a period in which De Witt, and William III., and Marlborough were to carry the new principle of statesmanship to its logical consequences. Instead of war in perpetuum in alliance with France against Spain, the establishment of a barrier of Spanish territory against France had now been recognized as the basis of a true Dutch policy; and from establishing a barrier to defending it, the step was an inevitable one. From the question of the Peace of Münster and its significance for the Netherlands, Mr. Geddes passes to a consideration of their attitude towards England, and thence to a brief but very perspicuous delineation of the nature of the Union, and an account of the struggle between Holland and "the Prince," the ardent and ambitious William II., whose second and most dangerous tyrannical design, the secret offensive treaty with Mazarin, was only rendered futile by the sudden hand of death. Against his previous violation of the constitution in the matter of the state of war, which had culminated in the attempt upon Amsterdam, Dort had set the example of resistance; and Jacob de Witt, the father of the future Grand Pensionary, was one of the six patriots whose imprisonment at Loevesteyn gave rise to the contemptuous term applied by the partisans of the House of Orange to their opponents as the "Loevesteyn faction."

For English readers this volume is likely to possess a unique interest, centring in its narrative of what may assuredly be termed the strangest diplomatic negotiation into which this country has ever entered with a foreign Power. We do not know whither else to turn for so plain and succinct an account as that furnished in Mr. Geddes's pages of the great Protestant and Republican scheme of an Anglo-Dutch coalition. Though other projects of alliances have been more long-lived than this, yet it formed part of one of the grandest political conceptions which have ever entered the brain of a practical statesman; and (which is perhaps strangest of all) it both preceded and followed the passing of an English law intended to destroy the maritime trade of the Dutch and the waging of a war which had threatened to ruin Amsterdam, "the emporium and sovereign city of the world's commerce." Oliver Cromwell, of whose "great form" De Witt had, in the opinion of his biographer, "by no means taken the measure," in no transaction of his life exhibited a more striking combination of visionary grandeur of aim with politic readiness to drop what was practically beyond his reach. Nevertheless it must be allowed that the projected union of the two Republics had been imperfectly "thought out" on the English side, and that the pettier notions of the Dutch had at least the

advantage of having a more substantial basis. There is considerable vagueness in the view attributed to Cromwell by an intermediary that "both parties would require to think of means which would contribute to the firm and friendly alliance of the two Powers," and there is some reason to doubt whether he was right in surmising "that the security might be found in admitting into the Government of each country two or three representatives from the other; the English representatives to have seats in the States-General or in the Dutch Council of State, and the Dutch representatives to have seats in the English Council of State." At the same time, Cromwell adhered with the utmost tenacity to the demand which he perceived to be one of immediate urgency—that the Prince of Orange should be excluded from office. He showed much flexibility with regard to the question as to how this was to be done, thus using his best endeavours to facilitate De Witt's difficult task; but from the demand itself he never swerved. De Witt's diplomatic skill and audacity, on the other hand, entitle him to the highest admiration which can be given to the unscrupulous pursuit of a clearly conceived purpose. He persuaded Cromwell to accept, in lieu of the public article in the treaty originally proposed, an obligation to exclude the Prince of Orange on the part of the Province of Holland alone, and he thus contrived both to bring about the peace with England which he knew to be indispensable, and to trick Holland into passing the Act which accomplished a primary object of his own policy at home.

It is impossible here to follow Mr. Geddes at length into the speculations with which this volume concludes concerning the general character and result of De Witt's "work," and the possibility which existed for him of following a course different from that which he actually adopted. Ardent democracies established on a broad basis, and heroic individuals or families with an uncontrollable instinct in the direction of monarchy, have, more usually than cumbrously constructed and slowly moving oligarchies, secured for themselves the sympathy of modern historians. Of all Federal systems of which history knows, that of the Union of Utrecht was probably the least compact; and the mutual jealousy of the provinces, more especially that of the smaller against the greatest, placed any revision of its conditions virtually out of the question. In De Witt's days Holland paid more than fifty-eight per cent. of the common expenditure of the Union, and Utrecht rather less than six; yet Utrecht could and did strive to counteract or undo what the action of Holland had accomplished. Still more unworkable was the principle that in every province every town retained its sovereign rights except where these were, with those of the provinces, abridged by the Act of Union, and, together with these rights, a *liberum veto* upon proceedings of the States-General as well as of the Provincial States. Of the difficulties and absurdities of "home rule," as Mr. Geddes calls it, the history of the "United" Netherlands is accordingly full, and fuller than ever in the Stadholderless time which succeeded upon Prince William II.'s transitory *coup d'état*; nor is there anything exceptional in the illustration, belonging to the time of the second Anglo-Dutch war, of the co-existence of "six lieutenant-admirals instead of one, with such a nominal right of supreme command to one of them as the weak States-General could bestow, but had not the faintest vestige of power to enforce." The House of Orange and its friends, both foreign and domestic, including the populace, the bulk of the army, and the Calvinistic clergy, were ready to apply a simple remedy. But, apart from questions of right and law, can it be conceived that a community such as that of the free Netherlands—artificial in the conditions of its political as of its commercial life—could have been carried safely through the complications and dangers of the third quarter of the seventeenth century by the novel experiment of a democratic monarchy, conducted in the first instance by a princely family divided against itself? The Province of Holland was strong enough to assume the primacy which was its due, but neither strong nor self-sacrificing enough to merge its identity in that of the common country—a country the reverse of united, even in its political aims. The policy of De Witt, though a transitory, was therefore a necessary one; and in so far, at least, we may subscribe to the following remarks of Mr. Geddes, which we cite in conclusion as an example of his style when on a level with the general excellence of his treatment of his theme:—

We cannot blame De Witt because he could not get rid of these facts, but he did not desire to get rid of them. On the contrary, he seized and gave stability to their worst characteristics, and made the isolation everywhere deeper and wider. His work tended to perpetuate the evil. But we are bound to consider whether any other course was open to him. There seem to us to have been only two ways of making a nation out of that congeries of provincial and municipal atoms: either to raise the Prince of Orange to supreme power, or to begin to lay the foundations of a homogeneous democratic republic, led by Holland as the most powerful, the most enterprising and energetic, and the wealthiest State. But could he enthroned, in his political creed, a disloyal House, whose two last representatives, for self-aggrandizing ends, would have led the little Republic into strange courses? Of a homogeneous democratic Republic he had no conception; and, if he had, could he have enthroned the ignorant and Orange-worshipping populace, whose fitness for political supremacy was still a long way off, and who would have instantly raised the dreaded House to power with shouts of loud acclaim? There was thus no theory of government left him but government by his own order, the oligarchy; and its basis was municipal privilege and corporate home rule. Its chief merit in De Witt's hands was that it secured for a time the predominance of Holland, and gave to the United Provinces, as Minister and leader, the greatest Dutchman of his time, and one, moreover, on whose public virtue there is hardly a blemish or a spot.

JUNGLE LIFE IN INDIA.*

ON taking up this work we thought that seven hundred pages of jungle life and geology might be too much of one subject. On laying it down after a careful perusal, we may fairly say that we could hardly wish anything omitted. Readers are here introduced to a very different India, as we are told in the preface, from the India of populous cities, mighty Rajas, and splendid monuments that have been described at least a score of times. This is a record of work of a peculiar and scientific kind, carried out in the teeth of great obstacles, manifold privations, and trials of climate. It introduces us to tracts little known except to political officers deputed to put down wicked customs, or to soldiers who have had to penetrate the fastnesses of some rebellious and wayward chief. And the story is told in a simple, straightforward, and unaffected style. Doubtless there is a tinge of sameness in all the experiences and adventures, and certain remarkable sites and ranges are visited twice, three, and even four times over. But the author acted judiciously in publishing his diary with only few alterations, instead of attempting to weave scattered incidents and disjointed visits into one connected whole. Mr. Ball has been employed for more than fourteen years, under the Government of India, in surveying regions which have enjoyed a vague reputation for mineral wealth, such as coal, copper, lead, gold, and diamonds, and he has taken copious notes of their main geological features. In the course of his wanderings he has become familiar with those settled districts of Western Bengal where red sandstone, undulating scenery, and clear streams are a positive relief to Anglo-Indians tired with the oppressive sameness of interminable rice-fields alternating with villages buried deep in bamboos and palms. He went all over a province known as "Non-regulation," and comprised in the South-West Frontier Agency. He visited Orissa, and ascended the Mahanuddi to the outlying post of Sambhulpore. He penetrated to such recondite and feverish places as Kalahundi, Bustar, and Jaipur, which must not be confounded with the principality of the same name in Rajputana. Twice he sailed to the Andamans and Nicobars, and added considerably to our knowledge of the zoology of these islands lying in "dark purple spheres of sea." He made the ascent of a mountain in Ganjam known as Mahendragiri, with the view of judging of its fitness for a sanatorium. Four times he got to the top of Parasnath with its Jain temples. He became familiar with Santals and Paharries, with the Rajmahal hills and with the plateau of Sirgoja. He found time to write a chapter on the remarkable series of lakes which form a striking feature of the Himalayas in the neighbourhood of Naini Tál. And in 1874 he made a journey to our Trans-Indus territories, and ascended the Suliman range in company with wild Beloochee horsemen. So, whether he writes as a scientific geologist, or as a genuine sportsman indifferent to large bags, or as a pioneer and explorer amongst non-Aryan savages, he has a great deal to tell us which will be new to most readers, and which even experienced district officers and Commissioners ought to be glad to know.

Mr. Ball had a regular plan of operations, and it was as follows. Tent life and jungle exploration being the enjoyable incidents of the Indian cold season, the author generally left Calcutta early in November with a fairly defined plan for his geological campaign, and marched with tents, making investigations into basaltic trap, shales, sandstone, coal-measures, mudstones, laterite, and so forth, on his march; and occasionally he rested for a few days at spots of more than ordinary interest. He had, of course, a retinue of native servants with bullock-carts and elephants. But his wanderings extended far beyond the compass of a magistrate's cold-weather tour, both as regards time and distance. Practically he was out in camp during the whole of the hot weather, felt the hot winds, and now and then came in for a few "north-westers," and for a foretaste of the rains. Exposed as he was to considerable variations of temperature, to the chill of an elevated plateau, to the radiation of rocks in a narrow valley, or to intense heat under canvas, he was repeatedly struck down by fever and ague. Fortunately, he seems to have escaped the disease known as regular jungle fever. He had further to endure innumerable privations and hardships, as well as divers petty annoyances. His servants fell ill, or, if they kept their health, were guilty of acts of insubordination. His commissariat was restricted. His postal arrangements were defective and irregular, and sometimes ceased to act at all. Occasionally he was without letters and papers for weeks and even months, and was then overwhelmed with a file of seventy issues, or with official requests that had long ago answered themselves. His horse fell dead lame and he had to perform his journeys on foot. Prolonged marching told upon the endurance of his elephants, and their rate of speed dropped from four miles an hour to one and a half. Occasionally one of these animals, as every sportsman knows to his discomposure, would break its chains at night, wander into the jungle, and give infinite trouble before it could be recaptured. To the heat and the chances of fever, and to the crosses and losses of Indian travel, from which no one except perhaps a Viceroy or a Lieutenant-Governor can claim exemption, were added those which arose out of Mr. Ball's peculiar position. A magistrate within his district, and a Commissioner within his division, meet with obsequiousness

and attention wherever they go. Rajas send baskets of fruits and flowers, and reserve for them the best beats on their well-known preserves. Native shikarrees disclose to them alone the haunts of the tiger and the pastures of the *sambur* and the *gaur*. But Mr. Ball was not a magistrate, and wielded no executive authority at all. It is true that Commissioners and other magnates issued circulars about his coming, and warned Zemindars, their agents, and the head men of villages, to show him respect and civility and to furnish his camp with supplies. But every Anglo-Indian knows that there are hosts of underlings who are quite ready to keep the letter of such orders and defy their spirit, and who are delighted at the bare chance of showing to any gentleman of undefined position just as much insolence as they think is safe. Mr. Ball's mission was neither to exact the dues of the State, nor to protect ryots from tyranny, nor to assure Rajas that they would be supported by the Government if they behaved themselves. And we are not surprised to hear that natives now and then regarded him as a harmless lunatic, when they saw him chipping stones, hunting for coal, asking suspicious questions about gold-washing and diamonds, climbing scarped rocks in the heat of the day, and persisting in visiting lonely places which popular fancy had peopled with ghosts and demons. There were, of course, varieties of these jungly Zemindars. While some underbred specimens chewed *pan*, and smoked and spat, and asked impertinent questions, others were glad to befriend this wandering Englishman. Raja Bindeshuri Sing, the ruler of Sirgoja, was a favourable type of his class; and specimens of his conversation show point, refinement, and tact. This gentleman was very properly in late years made a Companion of the Star of India; but it is significant of the Oriental way of dealing with enemies, that in the Keonjur disturbances of 1868, this same polished Raja, taking the field with us, had no hesitation in cutting off the ears and noses of the mutineers whom he did not either hang or shoot. If his not very well-defined position subjected Mr. Ball to sundry annoyances; if he had to wait here for supplies and there for transport; if, when his camp was robbed, the native inspector of police was lax and exacting by turns; if the Uriya in his native wilds was a very different being from the Uriya bearer of Chowringhi, who is generally faithful and attentive—if, in short, the spirit of the jungly tribes was anything but divine and in some cases was below the level of humanity—yet at the same time the author obtained glimpses of native character and feeling not always disclosed to men who may be more accomplished linguists and fill higher posts. It is fair to state that Mr. Ball was never intimidated or threatened with violence, and that he marched for weeks and months miles away from all civilization, without ever having to use his weapons against anything but birds and beasts. Something of this is due to his cheerful and patient spirit and to his ability to manage natives. Indeed it is impossible to read his journal without feeling that no man who did not possess a fund of self-reliance, a fertility of resources, a command of temper, and a keen observation, could have discovered so much or surmounted so many obstacles.

Readers of different temperaments and pursuits may find plenty of interest in these pages. To the sportsman they will tell something, though this is not a sporting work. To a zoologist the jungles that stretch from the Damuddah in a western and south-westerly direction to the Mahanuddi and the Wyngunga offer manifold attractions; and all persons removed from such commissariat as any decent native bazaar affords must rely on the tank and the marsh for the materials of their dinner. Snipe and teal, ducks of various kinds, partridges of more than one sort, jungle fowl, spur fowl, and pea fowl, fell to Mr. Ball's gun on his long marches. And he was repeatedly invited by chiefs and landholders to take up his station on an extemporized platform and enjoy a *hank*, or drive for large game. Somehow these expeditions were often failures, or the results were small compared to the trouble taken and the number of men employed. Possibly the Raja took for himself the best station, and placed his guest where neither deer nor tiger would break; or the beaters made too much or too little noise; or some hitch occurred just at the critical moment. But often we read of a bear, or a deer or two, or a few peafowl as the sum total of an organized hunt; and, to say the truth, repeated failures incline us to think that Mr. Ball is not quite as skilful with the rifle as he is with the hammer. Tigers were often seen but not accounted for; and it was not till the cold season of 1876-7 that he managed to knock over one of these animals with an express bullet. But failures and successes are both truthfully and graphically recorded; and in his visits to the Andamans he floundered through mud and decayed vegetation in tidal creeks and infected jungles in search of strange specimens. His account of the swallows and their edible nests made of seaweed, cemented by a gelatinous substance of dark colour; of the *bêche-de-mer*, or sea-slug; of the crab-plovers; of the megapodes, or mound-builders, and the strange way in which the eggs are hatched by warmth produced by the chemical action of time and decaying vegetation, will interest others besides ornithologists. We observe that in one of these trips the author had the advantage of serving under Mr. A. O. Hume, a well-known zoologist, who at that time was at the head of the department of Revenue and Agriculture expressly created by Lord Mayo. Several other facts may be noted in these pages. Cocoanuts are not indigenous in the Andamans, though they have been introduced and do well at Port Blair; and yet there are forests of these trees on the Nicobars and the Coco Islands. The rhinoceros is not found on the south or right bank of the Ganges near the Rajmahal Hills, though we rather think

* *Jungle Life in India; or, the Journeys and Journals of an Indian Geologist.* By V. Ball, M.A., Geological Survey of India, Fellow of the Calcutta University and of the Geological Societies of London and Ireland. London: De La Rue & Co. 1880.

this animal was known there a quarter of a century ago. No grey partridges were seen in a long march from Jaipur in the south to Chateesgurrh in the Central Provinces, and the shrill cry of this species can easily be distinguished from that of any other. And only one specimen of the floriken was obtained in Chutia Nagpore, though the bird is common in the huge plains on both banks of the Ganges, especially in the districts of Dinagepore and Rungpore. Of larger game there was occasionally no lack, in spite of the efforts of Sontals and others to keep these animals for their own special amusement and support.

We have not forgotten that geology was the chief object of all these expeditions, and Mr. Ball in one of his appendices gives a list of the various learned papers which he has at times contributed to the records of the Geological Survey or to the Asiatic Society regarding fauna and flora, and the coal and copper fields which he so patiently surveyed. To these sources we must refer all who wish to start Companies or to add to their own scientific knowledge. But we think it most desirable to draw attention to certain passages where the author condenses his own experience, and warns speculators of difficulties and obstacles. Very often anticipations of rich and inexhaustible seams of metal have turned out to be wholly delusive. Sometimes the veins are thin or are disturbed by "faults." When found at no great depth from the surface, they are speedily worked out. In one notable instance great expectations were formed by the discovery of coal in the Suliman range, but the seams were thin and not worth working, and the author finds it imperative to negative all hopes of vast abundance of coal in that quarter. A seam of coal, we are pointedly told, must not be taken to mean a "coal cliff." Then, even supposing we have the luck to light on a tract full of mineral resources, the success of mining adventure is affected by a variety of other considerations. Transport is expensive and communications are uncertain. Native agents will not take to geology and can never be wholly trusted, and Englishmen fall sick and die in jungly places far away from medical advice. Mining rights are mixed up with the land tenures, and native proprietors drive hard bargains, or involve Companies and their managers in heartbreaking and ruinous litigation. Sometimes the ground has been already occupied, and we find mention of Rajas who sub-let the rights to gold washings, and of natives who have smelted iron ore for years after a rude and unscientific fashion. In one passage Mr. Ball rather adopts the views of the non-official community, and inclines to think that the official class, or some members of it, dislike the sturdy and independent Englishman and still regard him as "an interloper." To this it might probably be replied with much truth that this same independent and vigorous Englishman is apt to override native rights and feelings altogether, and that the magistrate can only be said to dislike "interlopers" when he interferes to see that the natives have fair play. Moreover, it is well known and might be within Mr. Ball's own experience, that English Companies have been wound up simply because they went to work with too little capital, or with insufficient knowledge of the locality, or because they had rash and inexperienced managers, or because labour was too high in price, and the article produced did not sell. For a long time coal has been produced in the Ranigunge coal-field which does not suit sea-going steamers at all, and gives out far less heat and light than English or Australian coal. Government would hardly employ such qualified agents as Mr. Ball to report on the mineral resources of India unless they were really anxious to promote healthy private enterprise; and any exceptional jealousy shown by the official to the non-official class is certain eventually to disappear with the extension of railways and the spread of commercial venture, and with a wider and sounder knowledge of those elements of failure and success which must be taken into account in all such enterprises, from Canada clearances and ostrich-farming at the Cape, to coffee estates in Ceylon or tea-gardens in Assam and Darjeeling.

Many of Mr. Ball's descriptions of the scenery of Chutia Nagpore and of adjacent native principalities are attractive. He was not ordinarily employed in the magnificent ranges of the Himalayas; nor, again, was he confined to the arid plains of Hindustan and Behar. Some of his illustrations give us glimpses of considerable natural beauty, and no tour could ever be uninteresting which took the traveller through rocks and glades, by clear streams and under lofty peaks, and afforded him views over a wide tract of country in which patches of cultivation stand out in contrast to primeval forests. Then it must not be forgotten that in all these trips Mr. Ball was his own master. He pitched and struck his tents when and where he liked. He had only to take care to accumulate sufficient raw material to work up into a goodly report during the inactive hot season. He was never diverted from a cherished plan by any request from a tiresome Commissioner to know why he had failed to rout out a nest of *budmashes* (bad characters) at the other end of his district, or by an urgent demand from the Board of Revenue that he should march in a totally different direction to conclude a settlement of revenue with some impracticable *Puttidars*. A vast territory was open before him, and he could go from north to south and from east to west as it suited him. This freedom of action must have compensated for many privations, for the impertinence of ill-bred agents and the neglect of sluggish inspectors of police. We may notice one or two points where Mr. Ball's knowledge of native terms appears rather defective. The phrase *running a muck* is not derived from the Arabic word *ahmak* or foolish, but we think comes straight from the Malay "*amok*." And when he names a functionary as Nigoman or revenue collector, he means, we apprehend, only the

Persian word *Nigah-bán*, a keeper or custodian. Again, when, at page 477, he describes a threshing-floor as made by the Hos Kols of mud or clay, smoothed down and baked by the sun, as well as the process of treading out the grain by the unmuzzled oxen, he does not seem to be aware that he is describing what he might have witnessed in any Bengali village within a few miles of Calcutta. But whether we judge the book by the varied scenery traversed, or by the odd sights witnessed, or by the description of the native as he appeared in his undress without varnish or veneer, or by the general style of the narrative, we can recommend this volume as picturesque, new, and original, and can fairly say that, if the life of a pioneer in the jungles is ever to be brought home to the untravelled Englishman, it can only be by such journals, which are worth a bookshelf of flimsy sketches and of flying tours.

MUIRHEAD'S GAIUS AND ULPIAN.*

MUCH has been done of late years to remove from these kingdoms the reproach of neglecting the study of Roman law; and the present edition of Gaius and Ulpian is to be welcomed as an important contribution to that end. The specific occasion of it is the new collation of the unique Verona MS. of Gaius by Studemund, the results of which have occupied Continental scholars for the last few years, and are now for the first time brought before English readers. Professor Muirhead's edition, however, has quite enough merits of its own to stand on without this element of new matter, though the new matter is of importance. It is a thoroughly careful and scholarly work, aiming at the right sort of ends, and successfully accomplishing them. The editor has not been led away by any temptation either to lower his book to the level of a mere manual for examinations, or to treat Gaius as a peg whereon to hang discursive essays in general jurisprudence. He has taken in its full and simple sense the duty of editing a classical text of Roman law, and has performed it with constant diligence and with judgment seldom at fault. The translation subjoined to the text is made as close as practicable, and many technical terms are either retained in the Latin form or given in English forms which are transcripts rather than translations. In this we think Professor Muirhead quite right; it is a case in which the fear of uncountness should not be allowed to outweigh the need of accuracy. The terms of Roman law cannot all be fitted with English or Scottish equivalents, and even where it seems possible there is danger of confusing the reader's ideas. So far as modern technical terms have been employed, Professor Muirhead has naturally preferred those of Scots law to the English ones where they differ; and this may be found a little perplexing at first by English students using the book, but the inconvenience is one which the use itself will soon remedy. A new and material feature of the book is the "Alphabetical Digest of the matters contained in the text and notes, and of service as an index." This occupies nearly two hundred pages, and in fact amounts to a concise exegetical and critical dictionary of so much of the Roman law as is to be learnt from Gaius and Ulpian. Great clearness and concentration are gained by this method, as may be seen by turning to any of the important articles, such as *Caput*, *Hereditas*, *Testament*. Altogether the student equipped with Professor Muirhead's edition may go forward with the confidence of the soldier who knows that he is armed with a weapon at least equal to anything yet produced.

At this time of day it is needless to say much of the scientific and historical value of that which remains to us of the Roman law treatises of the classical period in their original form. Besides their primary importance for the knowledge of Roman law itself, comparative jurisprudence and the comparative history of institutions could without them hardly exist, or would at best be far more conjectural than they are. Several indications of great interest—fewer, unhappily, than could be wished—are given in passing allusions to usages and ideas already obsolete in the writer's time. Thus we find noted in Gaius the anxiety of the men of old time that an heir should not be long wanting, "*ut esset qui sacra faceret*," showing the importance in old Roman life of the family ritual which to this day plays a conspicuous part in the Hindú law of succession, and helping us to trace back the origin of the quasi-religious view of inheritance to the far past of the undivided Aryan stock. So, too, when we read of the class of descendants called *sui heredes* that they are in a manner owners of the inheritance even in the ancestor's lifetime—"vivo quoque parente quodammodo domini existimantur"—we cannot but recognize a surviving analogy to the Joint Family of Hindú law. Again, the remark that in old times the spoil taken from an enemy was deemed eminently and peculiarly a man's own—"maxime sua esse credebant quæ ex hostibus cepissent"—throws some light on the obscure question of the origin of private property (for so far, at any rate, we have got in the history of institutions as to know that the fact and the idea of property as a separate individual right by no means come by nature in the earliest stages of human culture). And here once more we are struck by a Hindú analogy. Things gained by personal valour are mentioned as among the first recognized

* *The Institutes of Gaius and Rules of Ulpian.* The former from Studemund's Apograph of the Verona Codex. With Translation and Notes, &c. By James Muirhead, Professor of the Civil Law, in the University of Edinburgh. Edinburgh: T. and T. Clark. 1880.

kinds of property known as "self-acquired," which may be held as *peculium* (to use a Roman term) by a member of an undivided Joint Family. It is interesting, again, though not quite in the same way, to find in Ulpian that the distinction between authorized and unauthorized religious orders in Roman Catholic countries, and the laws of mortmain established in most civilized nations, have their prototype in the rules of Roman law concerning bequests to temples:—"Deos heredes instituere non possumus præter eos quos senatus consulto constitutionibusve principum instituere concessum est." It would not be difficult to multiply instances to the like effect. Again, we read in Gaius of the *actio furti* that "if clothes have been given to a fuller to be pressed or scoured, or to a tailor to be repaired, and that for a fixed recompense, if he has lost them by theft it is he that has the *actio furti*, and not the owner; for it matters not to the latter whether they be lost or not, seeing he can recover damages from the fuller or tailor, if he be solvent, by an action of location. . . . What has been said of a fuller or tailor applies equally to him to whom we have lent some specific article." This is exactly parallel to the rule of early Teutonic and Anglo-Norman law, traceable in England almost into modern times, that possessory remedies belong to the bailee and not to the bailor; and the same reason is given for it, though it is at least probable that the reason inverts the historical relations. (See Mr. O. W. Holmes, junior's article on "Possession" in *American Law Review* for July 1878.) But we shall now turn to a subject more immediately relevant, if to some readers dry and crabbed—namely, Professor Muirhead's critical and other notes on Gaius.

The materials for reproducing the text of Gaius are far from being all that could be wished. The one MS. on which we have to depend is a palimpsest not in the best condition, the Epistles of Jerome having been written over Gaius by some good man who little thought how ungrateful posterity would be for his labours. Some parts have even been thrice written upon. It is true that the skilled and patient industry of Studemund has recovered the readings of the original in many places where they had escaped his predecessors in the work; but, when all is done, there still remains a sad account of hopeless blanks. And, by a special perversity of fortune, some of the most mutilated passages of Gaius are such as we can least afford to miss, relating to topics of great historical interest, which in Justinian's Institutes were either omitted as obsolete or recast in accordance with the then existing law. Elsewhere it is for the most part not difficult to fill up the general sense at least by the help of parallel passages from Justinian, the Digest, or other relics of the earlier jurisprudence. But, even where we have got the certain readings of the Verona MS., there is often a considerable field for the learning and ingenuity of editors. For the MS. text itself is none of the best. It is described by Krüger and Studemund, in their recent smaller edition of Gaius, as abounding in the following kinds of error, apart from obvious clerical blunders. Abbreviations in the MS. from which it was copied appear to have been misread; marginal glosses have been copied into the text; words and whole sentences have been omitted, from the scribe's eye being deceived by the similarity of their endings to those of some preceding word or clause. Altogether the critical work to be done is of no common difficulty, and the difficulty is increased by the nature of the subject; for scholarship and palæography must be joined with an accurate historical knowledge of Roman law to effect any probable reconstruction in corrupt places. Excellent progress has already been made by Continental scholars armed with Studemund's new collation. In Germany Studemund and Krüger have published a reformed text to which Mommsen has contributed his criticism, and the veteran Huschke has recast his well-known edition. In Holland Polenaar has produced a somewhat daring recension, and Goudsmit of Leyden (already more or less known to English students by a translation of his *Pandects* which appeared some years ago) has given us some acceptable emendations in a critical essay.

But, having the harvests of all these labourers before him, Professor Muirhead has not failed to find something more for his own hand to do. For example, in the Second Book of Gaius, § 135^a, we read:—"In potestate patris non sunt qui cum eo civitate Romana donati sunt, nec in accipienda civitate Romana pater petit a principe ut eos in potestate haberet." The words *a principe* are Professor Muirhead's interpretation of the MS. abbreviation *ap*, which seems better than Huschke's *aut post* (inserting *statim* immediately before on a doubtful interpretation of the MS.) In iii. § 146, there occurs a sentence which Professor Muirhead has rightly seen to be unsatisfactory, though we shall suggest a different remedy. The question is of the case where a band of gladiators is let out on the terms of, say, 20 denarii being paid for the use of each who comes back sound, and 1,000 for every one killed or disabled. Is the contract one of sale or of hiring? The answer is that it is partly one and partly the other: "Magis placuit eorum qui integri exierint locationem et conductionem contractam videri, at eorum qui occisi aut debilitati sunt emptionem et venditionem esse; idque ex conditionibus apparet, tamquam sub conditione facta cuiusque venditione an locatione" (venditionem an locationem, MS.). As Professor Muirhead notes, the sense must be that "two conditional contracts were entered into as regards each of the gladiators, one of sale, the other of location; the event was to determine which became operative." He suggests as an improvement . . . et venditione et locatione [utrum emptio et venditio contracta sit an locatio et conductio]. Certainly something is wrong, for the "venditione an locatione" of the text is not Latin as it stands. But it is easier to read *aut* for *an*, a very

slight change, when the clause will read thus:—"and this appears from the event, as if in the case of each gladiator there had been a conditional contract of sale or hiring in the alternative." One might also read *apparere* for *apparet* (as Huschke has already done, finding sufficient reason, it would seem, in the greater elegance of continuing the reference to the foregoing *magis placuit*), substitute *itaque* for *idque*, and read "factam cuiusque venditionem an locationem"; translating, "And (it has been held) that thus, according to the event, the contract made as it were conditionally concerning each gladiator turns out a sale or a hiring, as the case may be." The construction is condensed and something harsh, but the departure from the MS. is hardly wider than in the other reading proposed, and the difficulty of the clause would increase the chance of corruption; and we are rather inclined to submit this as the more probable emendation of the two.

Professor Muirhead's criticism is on occasion conservative as well as constructive; once or twice, indeed, he resists changes which appear to us not only justified but necessary. Thus in Gai. iii. § 201, "interdum alienas res occupare et usucapere concessum est, nec creditur furtum fieri, veluti res hereditarias quarum heres non est nactus possessionem, nisi necessarius heres esset" (so MS.), Professor Muirhead "fails to see why" the German editors write *extet*. Surely *esset* is in that sentence a wrong tense which Gaius could not possibly have used. We have heard, it is true, of late English expounders of Roman law who have assumed that the classical jurists could not write Latin and are not to be construed by the ordinary rules of Latin grammar. But Professor Muirhead will at least agree with us that this opinion is to be rejected. We must likewise differ from him on a point of Latinity in his note on Gai. iii. § 189, where he calls *animadvertere* "so feeble a word" for capital punishment that Gaius cannot be supposed to have been content with it. The usage is classical and not infrequent. On the other hand, we are quite of Professor Muirhead's mind as to leaving the MS. text in iii. § 212. A direct action lies under the Aquilian law only "si quis corpore suo damnum dederit." Where the injury is not *corpore datum* the remedy is by *utilis actio*. Gaius gives undoubted instances, and proceeds:—"Item si quis alienum servum de ponte aut ripa in flumen proiecerit et is suffocatus fuerit, quamquam hic corpore suo damnum dedisse eo quod proiecerit non difficiliter intellegi potest." This is contrary to the law as stated in Justinian's Institutes, and the German editors alter it into correspondence. Polenaar lets it stand, and so does Professor Muirhead, holding that Gaius here gives, but with dissent, the opinion current in his own time. That Gaius's own opinion should sooner or later have prevailed and been adopted by Justinian's commissioners is natural enough. Professor Muirhead translates the expression of dissent thus:—"Although here it can easily be seen that, by the push given to the slave, the delinquent did the mischief by his direct act." We think this is a shade too strong; it seems to us that Gaius meant by "non difficiliter intellegi potest" rather what an English lawyer means when he says that the contrary of a received opinion is at least arguable; and we should be inclined so to translate the phrase.

Not to leave off in the arid region of textual criticism, we have reserved our last word for one or two historical points. Professor Muirhead says (on Gai. iii. § 134) that "amongst peregrins a *nudum pactum* was creative of action." We are not aware of any authority for this statement in its general and obvious sense, and it would involve some strange consequences. If it were so, the edict of Caracalla would have actually curtailed, instead of extending, the legal capacities and remedies of the *peregrini* who thereby were converted into *cives*. Again, if a *nudum pactum* was held to create an obligation *jure gentium*, how comes there to be no trace of such a doctrine in the Pretorian law? Professor Muirhead's remark is probably intended to be limited by the context where it occurs; but we have failed to discover what the limitation is, or what known doctrine of Roman law is referred to. On the formula "Fidepromittis? fidepromitto" there is an interesting note, pointing out how in the Republican times breach of faith (*fidem fallere*) was a grave social offence, even where there was no legal obligation, so that a very imperfect law of contracts was found less insufficient in practice than might have been expected. Somewhat in the same way the English law of contract was supplemented in its rudimentary stage, which lasted into the sixteenth century, by the jurisdiction of the spiritual courts to entertain, as matters of conscience, suits *pro lesione fidei*.

MOTHS.*

"SINCE the time of Addison," Lord Macaulay writes, "the open violation of decency has always been considered among us as the mark of a fool." It is not far short of forty years since this was written, and we greatly doubt whether it could with equal justice be said of the present time. We often wonder how it comes to pass that, if a feeling of delicacy no longer acts as a restraint in the choice of books for reading, at all events there is no regard for the opinion that may be formed of the understanding of the reader. By the books that a man reads, almost as much as by his friends, it can be seen what kind of man he is. A

* *Moths*. A Novel. By Ouida. 3 vols. London: Chatto & Windus. 1880.

woman whose taste was so depraved as to find pleasure in reading some of the stories that women are now writing, would, we should have hoped, at all events have hidden herself away while she enjoyed her favourite author. No less ought a man to keep concealed from his fellow-men the emptiness of mind and the poverty of understanding which could lead him to waste his time on the silly writings of this new race of female authors. "Show me," might very properly be said, "a reader of"—and here three or four novelists might be named—"and I will show you a fool." The readers to whom Addison gave so wholesome a lesson had at all events one excuse. Vicious and heartless though their favourite authors were, they had wit. No amount of salt could keep them sweet, but salt there was in abundance. It was wit and virtue, as Macaulay says, that Addison reconciled. But while in a certain school of writers of the present time we have not a little of the indelicacy that disgraced the Restoration, we have not one grain of the wit. There is a kind of spurious imitation of it which bears about as much likeness to the real thing as tinsel does to gold and silver. There is a great swell of words, a tawdriness of language, an affectation of art and sentiment, beneath which is hidden a beggarly poverty of thought. This alone ought at once to disgust any one who was gifted with even a moderate amount of common sense. Such extravagance of writing he ought to look upon as an insult to his understanding. "Does the woman take her readers for a pack of fools," he might very fairly ask, "that she writes for them in a style which a few short years ago would scarcely have been tolerated even in Bedlam?" Readers, however, seem to be found in greater numbers than ever, and folly that would once have been treated with utter contempt is now highly rewarded.

It is always dangerous to attack a book of this kind. What the author asks for is notoriety, and notoriety is gained whenever a criminal is put in the dock. It is needful, however, now and then fairly to put before the world what kind of literature it is that is being sold on our railway-stalls and sent up and down the country by our circulating libraries. We are not of those who hold that, because the class of rich idlers has lately gained largely in numbers and in shamelessness, English society as a whole is corrupt. Scattered throughout the land in all its length and breadth there is happily still to be found that virtuous home life which has done so much to make our country what it is. It is the honourable duty of the critic to guide those who are living such lives as these in their reading, to introduce them to writers of sense and learning and virtue, and to guard them against both fools and profligates. They might perchance, in their innocence, be misled by the titlepage of the novel before us, which they would find adorned with a quotation from the Scriptures. Let them but turn over the leaf, and they will find Scriptures, virtue, and common sense left very far behind. They will be at once introduced to Lady Dolly, "who," they will read, "had everything that can constitute the joys of a woman of her epoch." Why epoch? may with good reason be asked. The author either means *time of life*, or *age in which this woman was living*. But neither of these meanings belongs to *epoch*. *Epoch* is defined by Johnson as "the time at which a new computation is begun." Perhaps, after all, some excuse might be made for the word as it is here used. Lady Dolly is living at the present time, and from it the computation might well be begun of the age of silly and vicious female writers. However, we have little doubt that the author thought that *epoch* would better round off the first paragraph of her book than either *age* or *time of life*, and that therefore she chose it, in full confidence that such readers as she is likely to get would like a word none the less because they only partially understood it. In the second page the dress of this lady of the epoch is described. It was "baptiste sublimised and apotheosised by niello buttons, old lace, and genius." A few pages further on we come across brown holland sublimated, canonized, and raised to the empyrean. Outside the author's mongrel English there are, of course, no such words to be found as *sublimised* and *apotheosised*, whether by buttons or by anything else. But we must not be too hasty. To her may not belong the honour, or the disgrace, of their invention. She is, we little doubt, a diligent student of her sister novelists—for by what other course of study can she have arrived at the very perfection of a foolish style?—and in a rival's book she may first have come across them. They were too good, and too long, and too unmeaning to be let slip. "'Odours,' 'pregnant,' and 'vouchsafed,'" said Sir Andrew Aguecheek; "I'll get 'em all three ready." Sir Andrew, however, fool though he was, nevertheless got ready words that were in the language. He did not borrow barbarous compounds of ignorance, Latin, and Greek.

For the present, however, we shall pass over the author's language, though no doubt we shall have to return to it again. We shall come to her description of society. Society, we assume, she describes as it is known to her. Perhaps this is all that she could do were she to aim at being true to nature. But then we prefer that those who only know a certain kind of society should at all events have the decency to hold their tongues.

The chatter of the world [she writes] has almost always an element of the amusing in it, because it ruins so many characters, and gossips and chuckles so merrily and so lightly over infamy, incest, or anything else that it thinks only fun, and deals with such impudent personalities.

In another passage the author writes:—

Those who are little children now will have little left to learn when they reach womanhood. The little children that are about us at afternoon tea and at lawn tennis, that are petted by house-parties and romped with

at pigeon-shooting, will have little left to discover. They are miniature women already; they know the meaning of many a dubious phrase; they know the relative value of social positions; they know much of the science of flirtation which society has substituted for passion; they understand very thoroughly the shades of intimacy, the suggestions of a smile, the degrees of hot and cold, that may be marked by a bow or emphasized with a good-day. All the subtle science of society is learned by them instinctively and unconsciously, as they learn French and German from their maids. When they are women they will at least never have Eve's excuse for sin; they will know everything that any tempter could tell them.

When the author thus utters her shameless slanders against the little children who all around us are growing up to womanhood; when she says that the chatter of the world has in it an element of the amusing because it ruins characters and chuckles merrily over infamy and incest, we turn round upon her, and ask her what is the world in which she lives, and to what class of infamy belong the mothers that she knows whose little daughters are being reared in a steady course of vice? We are reminded how, when Johnson was once told that a miserable wretch who had fled the country had long been a suspected man, he answered, "By those who look close to the ground dirt will be seen. I hope I see things from a greater distance." It is indeed astonishing that any women could be found, except the most abandoned, to read this gross libeller of her sex. What indignation ought to be raised in any woman of common decency, or any man who is not ashamed of his own mother, on reading such a passage as the following:—"She had a gown cut *en cœur*, which was as indecent as the heart of woman could desire." Not the heart of some one of the infamous women who crowd these pages, but the heart of woman—woman whom it has been the aim of a long line of writers to surround and defend with thoughts of chivalry and purity, and whom now a base herd of female novelists are trying to drag down to the level of their own coarse imaginations. The whole plot of this story is an abomination in itself. We might indeed despair of society were we to believe that a woman's tale of incest would not be treated with the contempt and disgust that it deserves. It is she, and not the world, who chuckles so merrily and so lightly over this horrible subject. It is she who spreads it out and dwells upon it in three long volumes. It is she who adds to it the utmost aggravation. And then she attacks "the woman of modern society," who is, she says, "too often at once the feeblest and the foulest outcome of a false civilization." She attacks the world, "which always greets with a damnable smile the approach of a foul idea." She is shocked at "the insane cruel chirping laughter of society when it smells a sin." She writes that "society chirped and babbled merrily of all the filth that satirists scarce dare do more than hint at lest they fall under the law." What right has she to take the shameless profligates of one small class and to call them the world and society? There may be a society which babbles merrily of filth, there may be a world which chuckles over infamy and incest. But we will not allow either those who live in this shameless society and form part of this infamous world, or those who pretend to be familiar with it, to put forward the impudent claim that they are society and they are the world. It would indeed have been a great misfortune had the author of this story been really a clever writer. She is very pretentious; but he must be a poor blockhead indeed who cannot discover that she is very silly. She greatly affects knowledge. She has the names of a certain number of classical authors on her tongue. She writes of the vice which "it is the fashion to pretend to believe shut up between the pages of Suetonius and Livy." She can excite the admiration of her readers by speaking familiarly of "the divine caduceus" and "the thronged auditorium." She makes a waiting-maid sit down by the seashore on a nice smooth stone, which the next moment is called "a madreporeic throne." She represents a great duchess when going out shooting as carrying "her own chokebore by Purdy." She calls sea-shingle "the disordered detritus of the beach." She says that a great singer was famous "from Neva to Tagus, from Danube to Seine." She makes the hero pick the rare *Wolfinia Carinthiana*. She describes moths as "burning themselves in feverish frailty." She brings in French with wonderful facility. Perhaps, however, we might object to an excess of accentuation in such a phrase as the following—"qui donc à (sic) voulu me mystifier?" Her studies, it will be seen, have been extensive, if not accurate. They have not, however, kept her from writing rant, and from filling her books with folly. Rant, however, might be forgiven, and folly might be laughed at. But there is much in this ignorant, dull, and disgusting story which no person whose mind is not utterly corrupt can either forgive or make a subject of laughter.

RECENT SCIENCE PRIMERS.*

ALTHOUGH no royal road to knowledge has yet been discovered, it is not to be denied that much has been done to shorten and make smooth the path by which the tiro has to make his way to the temple of science or to the stores of

* *Primer of the Industrial Geography of Great Britain and Ireland.* By G. Phillips Bevan, F.G.S., F.S.S., &c. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Allen. 1880.

Physical Geography. By Edward W. Lewis, F.R.G.S. London: Moffatt & Paige. 1880.

Easy Lessons in Heat. By C. A. Martineau. Illustrated. London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

Manuals of the Science and Art of Teaching.—(No. 3) *Mechanics*; (Nos. 7, 8) *Domestic Economy.* London: National Society. 1880.

learning heaped up by the literary industry of the past. Not only have conspicuous strides been effected in the method of teaching, but still more striking improvements, it may be thought, are to be seen in the elementary works or manuals which are put into the hands of the beginner. Instead of its being taken for granted that anything was good enough for the first stages of education, and that nothing was easier than to indite handbooks for use in the nursery or the preparatory school, it has come to be realized that to lay aright the foundations of knowledge is amongst the tasks which tax the highest capacity, and give fitting scope for the energy and skill of those best qualified in each department. It is a hopeful sign of educational progress that we see acknowledged masters in many a special branch of science, or in the supreme science of teaching itself, coming forward with handbooks or primers in which the elementary principles of each department of study are laid down with the clearness of consummate knowledge, and with an authority which precludes the fear of the pupil's having later on to retrace his steps. We have had a pleasant task in noticing from time to time more than one series of publications of this kind, in which names of the highest standing in physics, in history, or in classical and general letters, have stood as vouchers for the quality of the teaching, compressed into the minimum of space, and conveyed in terms suited to the beginner. The supply of manuals of this class continues, and we find before us a batch of those most recently issued, which seem well fitted to strengthen the hands of parents and elementary teachers in meeting the intellectual needs of their youthful charges.

Some, indeed, of this series are suited for a more mature class of students, and open up fields of inquiry or information which have hardly, if at all, been hitherto included in the curriculum of education. A strong feeling having grown up of late in favour of embodying in our scheme of education some acquaintance with the industrial condition of the various countries of the world—a kind of knowledge manifestly of very great importance in these days of technical activity—the plan has been conceived of a series of text-books, or primers, setting forth in the simplest language the resources and industries of each country, together with the physical and geographical causes or conditions which have led to their existence. The introductory volume of this series now before us is Mr. Phillips Bevan's *Primer of the Industrial Geography of Great Britain and Ireland*. We here find compressed within little more than a hundred pages a fairly ample and methodical summary of the causes to which our island group, small as it is amongst the states or empires of the earth, owes its high position of wealth and power. This is mainly due, the writer shows, to its geographical position and to the great number and variety of industries which are carried on within so small a space. With her silver streak of sea as a shield from foreign invasion and a channel for her world-wide commerce, she has beneath her soil mineral treasures of vast extent and priceless value. Beginning with coal and iron, Mr. Bevan gives a list of the coal-fields or basins of Great Britain and Ireland, eighteen in number, summarizing the total output of the year as about 150,000,000 tons, giving employment to some half million of colliers and miners. With all regard to economy of space, he might have found room for more definite figures, distinguishing the yield of each separate basin. The want of such tables is, indeed, the one fault we have to find with his work throughout. The sketch of the iron industry, its rise, diffusion, and recent memorable fluctuations, is very clear and full; the different ores are distinguished, with the processes applicable to each; and due notice is taken of the vast development of the steel manufacture, which bids fair to make iron ere long a thing of the past. Copper, brass, tin, and lead fill another chapter, followed by hardware trades, building, glass, and pottery. The textile trades are dealt with under the several heads of (1) cotton and wool; (2) flax, jute, silk, and lace. Agriculture has justice done to it in a single chapter, in which local causes, such as geological formation, varieties of soil, and water supply are shown to determine the diversities of cultivation and the quality and quantity of produce. Food and drink supply items for a short but diversified chapter. Railways and shipping ports bring together ample details of the latest and most widely developed of our industries, the tonnage of shipping, British and foreign, being made to tell anew its marvellous tale of modern progress, the figures having well nigh doubled themselves within the last fourteen years. The useful little manual closes with a "Lesson Table of Industries," giving for each county and each principal town or district the special industry or culture for which it is notable. The series, which we understand is to extend to fifteen volumes, is likely, if carried on throughout on the same plan, to be welcomed as a valuable aid to those engaged in the practical branches of education.

Under the title of *Physical Geography* Mr. Edward W. Lewis has put together an instructive series of facts and theories arranged on the basis of questions set at the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations. Without degenerating into the mere cram which we so often find in compilations of this kind, this short compendium enables the pupil to grasp rapidly the leading principles which may be said to underlie and regulate all we know of the existing state of land, sea, and atmosphere, as well as of the physical agencies which have brought about and continue to modify the condition of the earth's crust. Why the author should have fixed almost exclusively upon South America in illustration of the laws which result

in the formation of a continent, determining its physical features, the set and volume of its rivers, and other peculiarities of its climate, we fail to perceive, unless it be that the New World may be held to represent in its comparative novelty features of greater attraction to the student. The Nile basin and the Himalaya range are taken as typical illustrations of the effects of river erosion on the one hand, and the laws of mountain elevation and glacial action on the other. From these special instances Mr. Lewis passes on to a more general survey of fluvial and marine denudation, the growth of coral reefs, the courses of volcanic action and the distribution of eruptive centres, the laws and effects of tidal action and of oceanic currents, with the vertical and lateral circulation of water, particularly in the Atlantic, as affecting the climate of Europe through the medium of the equatorial current, or so-called Gulf Stream. The action of periodical or regular winds is explained, in contrast with that of cyclones or occasional atmospheric disturbances, of which the main phenomena and laws are summarily laid down in their bearing upon practical navigation. What has been done of late towards securing solid ground for a science of weather is made as clear as may well be within limits so narrow. The local circumstances influencing climate, such as altitude, proximity to the sea, ocean currents, the slope of a country, its soil, mountain chains, prevailing wind, and vegetation, are shown to modify the general laws of solar evaporation, condensation, circulation, and consequent pressure. The use of isothermal and isobaric lines in making the results clear to the eye upon a weather chart is explained. In giving in to the popular theory of the connexion of rainfall with sun-spots, which he supports by tables of maximum rain at eleven years' interval, our author, as usual, fails to note whether these figures have been deduced from observations all round the globe (which, in fact, there are as yet no means of determining), or merely from those of a few stations like Madras and the British Isles, which fall in with the hypothesis. Had he had the advantage of seeing the critical discussion of the available meteorological records in Mr. G. M. Whipple's paper lately read before the Royal Society (January 15), he would doubtless have given less definite place to the eleven years' cycle as an element in the determination of such climatic influences.

In *Easy Lessons in Heat*, one of Messrs. Macmillan's excellent series of scientific text-books, Miss C. A. Martineau introduces the beginner to the simple and fundamental problems which lie at the threshold of one of the most progressive and inexhaustible of physical inquiries. The class of readers she has in view are those who, without having the wish or the opportunity to study larger books, are properly curious about what goes on around them every day, who would fain know the how and the why of such familiar matters as the boiling and freezing of water, the draught which goes up a chimney when a fire is lighted, the lighting of that fire, whence the heat comes from which lights it, how it is kept up, and so on. From the simple fact that heat makes most things expand, she proceeds to give elementary notions of the vibratory motion of particles, comparing a heated body to a crowd of people swaying to and fro, and spreading further and still further apart. How heat spreads, first in solids and next in liquids and gases, is illustrated by simple experiments, and the measure of temperature is explained. What is meant by specific heat is made clear, as is the effect of heat in changing solids into liquids and liquids into gases. The anomaly of water expanding after a certain point with cold brings in an excellent chapter upon freezing and crystallization of water, and the phenomena of latent heat, illustrated by woodcuts of snowflakes and flowers of ice, borrowed from Professor Tyndall. From artificial experiments the learner is led on to the infinitely grander operations of nature in geysers and hot springs, in rain and vapour. Wave action and radiation are explained, together with the formation of dew. How heat does work, and what becomes of the heat spent in doing it, brings us to the final lesson that no fact in nature is isolated, but that seemingly small and disconnected truths widen out and link themselves together until they become coextensive with the whole fabric of nature, bearing witness to the unity and continuity of the universe itself. Each chapter of this useful little manual has prefixed to it a list of the simple apparatus needed to exemplify or illustrate the lesson comprised in it. It will greatly encourage the tiro in this branch of physics to see how near at hand are all the experimental aids required for the proof or the verification of each step that his teacher bids him take.

The wide demand for the National Society's Manuals on the Science and Art of Teaching has prompted the issue of a series of works on more advanced subjects, suited to the needs, not only of teachers in elementary schools and students under training, for whom they were primarily intended, but also to those engaged in schools of a higher grade. The preparation of them has been entrusted to writers of distinction in their various departments, who have had large experience as teachers and examiners. What is distinctively aimed at is the training of the teacher in the method of imparting knowledge and disciplining the faculties for the discovery or recognition of truth, as well as forming practical habits in dealing with the economy of life. One of the numbers of this series now before us treats of the teaching of mechanics, starting from the elementary conceptions of matter, its physical states and properties, and the measures of extent, time, and velocity. Next comes energy, or the power to do work, as exhibited by matter in motion and by heat; what is meant by the conservation and transference of energy being exceedingly well set forth. The laws of friction lead to the study of the simple mechanical powers. The principle of liquid pressure is briefly

discussed in theory and practice; as is next the flow of liquids and solids, and the parallelogram of velocities applied both to the path of a projectile and the resultant of multiple forces. A great deal of sound philosophy is here compressed into little more than fifty pages. Two other members of the same series deal with domestic economy; the first (No. 7) relating to dress, dwelling, spending, saving; the second (No. 8) to food, its composition, functions, and preparation. The practice of housekeeping in its widest sense, which is the result here ultimately aimed at, is more than books can pretend to impart. But rules and maxims for the use of persons engaged in practical teaching may be with good effect embodied in print, as the sensible little handbooks before us sufficiently prove. Though bearing no author's name, they are manifestly the work of writers who have added practical experience to theoretical study. With these in hand the young or unpractised teacher may face a class without the uneasy feeling that he is launching, as it were, upon a wide and unknown sea without chart or compass.

THE HONOURABLE ARTILLERY COMPANY.*

CAPTAIN RAIKES has condensed the matter of fourteen thousand pages of Minutes. He has examined many hundreds of manuscript volumes in which are recorded the proceedings of the Courts of Aldermen, Common Council, and Lieutenant. He has spared no labour, and the publishers have spared no illustrations. The result is a history of which the second and last volume has now appeared, and of which the London Artillerymen may well be proud. The work is bulky; but they should be bound to carry it in their saddle-bags and knapsacks on their periodical marches to meet, as is their privilege, Royal personages at what was once Temple Bar, and to escort Lord Mayors to Westminster Hall. The whole makes a grand chronicle of achievements in purely civic fields. During their occasional banquets, for which their chronicler is careful to inform the public they pay out of their own private purses, one warrior might be detailed to mount the rostrum, and read how the London Artillerymen of old confronted "No Popery" rioters, "Corresponding Society" men, and Chartists, or more dangerous foes in the shape of tyrannical aldermen, and envious Volunteers. But then the work should have been printed for private circulation only. Its interest is too esoteric for the profane understanding of outsiders. No honorary members are ever admitted into the Company. We can feel, as we study these thousand pages, that had we the happiness to see the venerable legion from the inner side we might possibly be as enthusiastic in its praise as is its Musketry Instructor. Gazing and carping from without the sacred walls of its practising-ground we sincerely grieve to be unable in our account of this second volume to recant our verdict on the first. Everything possible has been done by historian, and printer, and heliotypist to set forth the reasons for public gratitude to the most ancient of military corps. Yet the impression upon the outer world must, we fear, be that from the whole circle of human institutions scarcely one could have been more easily spared than the Honourable Artillery Company of London.

But happily there are tastes of all kinds. There may even be minds which will be fascinated by the annals of the Honourable Artillery Company's two centuries and a half of acknowledged existence. For the benefit of any such possible persons we propose to note the chief landmarks of the long and authentic history embraced in this concluding portion of Captain Raikes's work. The volume opens with a dispute between the Company and the Lord Mayor elect, Sir Matthew Blackstone. The Company had refused to attend Sir William on Lord Mayor's Day unless he paid them the customary fee of 50*l*. He offered 30*l*., with an offer to eke the money out by tickets for the Guildhall Banquet and wine. But the Company refused to eat and drink it out in that way. Eventually it lost all, for King George II. died, and the Mayor was sworn privately at Westminster. In ordinary circumstances there would have been compensation. There was no 50*l*. or Guildhall dinner. But there ought to have been an Address to the new king, and a glorious display of "weepers, queue wigs, and black swords." All was arranged, down to the wording of the Address to "You, Great Sir," King George the Third. The President of the Company himself marred that plan by taking offence about some formality. To the horror of the Company and all loyal Englishmen it seemed doubtful when and how the young Sovereign was to be assured of the devotion of the citizen guardians of his throne. A royal marriage, however, speedily followed a royal accession. That was an auspicious occasion for felicitations, accompanied by a request to His Majesty, "Dread Sir," to nominate in place of the late king a Captain-General over "US," in large capital letters, "who may be a witness that we shall never fail to discharge the trust reposed in us." It is added, with the emphasis befitting the martial contemporaries of Captain John Gilpin, "even to the Risque of our lives." The most important event in the annals is that "at a Court held on the 24th of November the title of Beadle was changed to that of Messenger." We think that rather a pity. Since 1760 the Company had been without a Captain-General. In 1766 the King nominated the Prince of Wales. In honour of His Royal Highness's birthday, a

ham and two fillets of veal were ordered to be provided, "to be eat cold in the evening, and two currant tarts four shillings each."

The year 1767 is memorable for a treaty of friendship between two warlike bodies. Lord Mayors, jealous, it would seem, of the independent bearing of the Artillery Company, had sought to sow enmity between it and another redoubtable corps, "the Ancient Body of Cripplegate Grenadiers," whose history is yet to be written. "A body of men who call themselves Cripplegate Grenadiers," as the Artillery Company was wont contumeliously to describe them, had more than once been asked to attend Lord Mayors at Westminster in place of the Artillery Company. We regret to say they succumbed to such a temptation even a few years after 1767. In the latter year, at any rate, they were better advised. The Grenadiers "determined to end such animosities," remembering that they "for many years bore the peake of threatens (*sic*) from" the Artillery Company "from an old grudge of this sort nineteen years ago." The Artillery Company reciprocated the generosity, and the Lord Mayor elect of 1767 had to invite, and probably fee, them both. It may be that the necessity contributed to sour the relations between the Mansion House and Bunhill Fields. Among the entries for the following June we read with dismay that "the Lord Mayor had been treated with great contempt by the Armourer." The Commissioners of Lieutenancy avenged their chief by suspending their annual payment of 150*l*. to the Company. But the Armourer was dismissed and the pension renewed. Among the Company's officials elected in 1770 were two conspicuous politicians. One was Lord Mayor Beckford, the other was Alderman John Wilkes, who was chosen one of the "Generals." It may have been due to the energy of General John Wilkes that the Adjutant discovered shortly afterwards the remarkable fact that "the exercises practised by the Company were quite different to those used by every corps in the kingdom." Thereupon a drill-serjeant was appointed. Lord Mayor Beckford was succeeded in 1771 at the Mansion House by an equal friend of liberty, Lord Mayor Brass Crosby. The Lord Mayor and Mr. Alderman Oliver were committed to the Tower by the House of Commons for their conduct in the constitutional question of the imprisoned printers. The Corporation sympathized with its head, and so did the Artillery Company. When the prorogation opened the Tower doors, the Company "attended in uniform, with twenty-one field-pieces, which were fired when the Lord Mayor and Mr. Alderman Oliver arrived at the gate." In May 1773 "twelve dozen Queen's Ware plates, at three shillings a dozen, were ordered to be purchased"; and in July, four dozen hat pins, with other warlike ammunition. Passing to 1775, we find a long and particular account of the renewal of the Company's lease of its ground, in connexion with the involved and not very creditable negotiations between the City Corporation and the Prebendary of Finsbury about a fresh lease to the former of the prebendal lands. By the amiable disposition of the Corporation, of the Company's Court of Assistants, and of the actual Prebendary of Finsbury, Dr. Christopher Wilson, afterwards Bishop of Bristol, aided by the Parliamentary interest of Lord Rockingham, Dr. Wilson's patron, and of the Corporation, the various financial and legal difficulties were at length surmounted. The only party robbed was the Church. But in those days no one pitied the Church. At least the public, which owes in part to the arrangement Finsbury Park, lost less by the intrigue than by the analogous transaction to which the Southampton branch of the Fitzroy family owes its estates in St. Pancras. As the chairman of the Company's Committee "paid a Benevolence of ten guineas to the Poor-Box, it being customary to make a present on such an occasion," even charity was satisfied.

Secured in the possession of its ground for a new term, the Company became more martial in demeanour than ever. For Lord Mayor's Day in 1777 an order is recorded that the officers are to watch over their men's conduct on that night, "as a considerable share of the future fame of this Company depends on the spirited execution of the guard at Guildhall." The next year, obviously *ex abundanti cautela* only, it is decreed that "any member convicted of being disguised in liquor at the Lord Mayor's ball, being in regimentals, shall be fined half a guinea." The next month it was resolved at a Court to beat up for new members, in view of "the general preparations for war then being made throughout Europe," and also of the evidence afforded by "the Charter of Henry VIII. and the Patents of James I. and Charles I., that the Company was in those times deemed useful for the maintenance, defence, and safety of the Realm." Such a spirit is sure of a worthy sphere sooner or later. The Company had to wait for its opportunity a short two years. Wednesday, the 7th of July, 1780, was, says Walpole, "the fatal day" for London. It was a proud day for the London Artillery Company. Lord George Gordon's admirers took possession of the metropolis on that day, and the Artillery Company, if not actually under fire, was behind it. The mob sacked a house in Broad Street; and a contemporary engraving depicts the Company firing on the rioters. The Company's Major is seen in the print, which is reproduced in the present volume, giving the word. His superior rank is denoted by a majestic width of person at least double that of any of his men. On no subsequent occasion did matters come to this extreme of direct collision with an enemy; but the Company was often called out in the years of high political strife which followed, to guard the tranquillity of London streets. An element of prudence was mixed with their bravery. They decided at this period not to print in their lists their residences, as "in times of tumult the

* *History of the Honourable Artillery Company.* By Captain G. A. Raikes. London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1879.

places of abode being known might prove inconvenient." Still, in times before the new police force was enrolled, they probably had their uses. In 1794 they received the thanks of the Lord Mayor for intimidating mobs which were endeavouring to destroy public-houses where recruits were enlisted. They were under arms during the trials of Hardy, Thelwall, and Horne Tooke. In the following year they were at various times called out to protect the City against disturbances supposed to be contemplated by the Corresponding Society, or by Bethnal Green weavers out of work. During elections, moreover, when it was held unconstitutional to keep the Guards at the Bank, the Company took their place. But one of their grandest displays was on the occasion of the great Chartist assemblage in 1848. That occasion must rank in their history second only to the 7th of July, 1780. They had the glory of being instructed as if on the eve of real battle. Their Colonel, "in a short spirit-stirring speech called on them to stand by one another and to fire low, picking off the ringleaders." They could even boast that they had real stones thrown at them. It was not their fault, but their misfortune, that they never had the luck to be under fire of musketry. One of their corps, however, a Mr. Richard Pepys, blew off his own hand in firing a salute to the President, and the Company never forgot it. Mr. Richard Pepys's name is constantly recurring in connexion with favours received. The Company created an office as a pension for him, interested itself to obtain a City post for him, and finally paid him off with a gift of 150*l.*, when he sailed to some appointment in Sierra Leone. Of less splendid experiences than shooting or being shot at there is a sufficient abundance for the latter years of last century. There were field days with the Royal Independent Blue Volunteers of Marylebone in 1783; balloon experiments on the Artillery Ground by Michael Biaggini in the same year and by Vincent Lunardi, "Secretary to the Neapolitan Ambassador," in 1784, when the royal Captain-General was present; and again in 1785 addresses to the King, expressing the loyal Company's "highest gratification" at the removal of the Coalition Ministry, and, somewhat later, the dismissal of Mr. Thomas Lawrence for holding "opinions inimical to the present Government of the country." Among other incidents in the *olla podrida* of the Company's annals, we note the incorporation in 1784 of the present Regent's Park Toxophilite Society as a flank division of Archers; feuds with the farmers of Finsbury Fields on account of the obstructions they raised to the Company's annual march to practise for itself with bows and arrows, according to the usage of the reign of King Henry VIII.; and Orange demonstrations of the Company, which was till 1829 always devoutly Protestant, though it fired on Lord George Gordon's friends. There are even entries of such really military events as inspections, sometimes in association with twelve thousand other Metropolitan Volunteers, when the Company was by general consent ranked as first battalion of the first brigade, under the eyes of the King himself, sometimes alone, when the Assistant Adjutant-General Macquarie "told Mr. Alderman Watson that they were an astonishing corps." Assistant Adjutant-General Macquarie was very probably right.

Not all of the performances we have thus briefly summarized were, as we have intimated, of a strictly military character. But the Company once at least in its career appeared on the point of coming to actual blows with another body of civic warriors. In 1795 the sanctity of the Company's Artillery Ground was threatened. A new-fangled soldiery, called the City Militia, was in that year reorganized, and pretended to represent the Ancient City Trained Bands. The Company's leases had always recognized the right of the City Trained Bands to the use of the Artillery Ground for drilling and exercising. Accordingly, the City Commissioners of Lieutenancy claimed the use of the ground and armoury daily. It was almost adding insult to injury that they expressed their magnanimous readiness to leave it free to the Company itself for part of two days in each week. The Court of Assistants replied by a haughty defiance to demands which, it declared, would end in the virtual annihilation of the glorious Artillery Company. For five years the strife raged, the City authorities being opposed to the Company, which had gradually, like other City Companies, been emancipating itself from identity with the Mansion House and Guildhall. On the 29th of October, 1796, it seemed as if the crisis had arrived. The Company had about doubled its numbers since 1783. Then it counted but two hundred and thirty men, of whom only from sixty to eighty were privates and ten gunners, the rest being officers of various ranks, and thirty-one bandmen. Still, between four and five hundred made hardly a force to match the City Militia. Yet the commanding officers locked their gates, posted their men and field-pieces in convenient positions, and prepared for victory or death. We wish we had space to narrate the event with all Captain Raikes's solemnity. We can only state, in the briefest way, that the London Militia, with bayonets fixed and drums beating, marched right up to the gates, and then, finding them inhospitably shut, took it so much to heart that they marched back to St. George's Fields. The Company remained in possession of all the honours of victory. Unhappily, courts of law thought the new London Militia corresponded to the old London Trained Bands. After further and vain legal resistance, the Company resigned itself to the ignominy of admitting partners in its parade ground. One Black Monday in May 1800, "all the gates were locked, and at a quarter to eleven the West Regiment of London Militia presented themselves at the Gate in Bunhill Row, and, on declaring who they were, the Committee ordered the Messenger to open the gates, when they

marched in." *Sic transit gloria mundi.* However, though the City Militia had got the better of the Company, fortunately for its self-respect City Volunteers sprang up at different times, and tried to emulate the victory of the Militia. Sturdily did the Company hold its ground. Volunteers, whether in the reign of George III., or in that of Queen Victoria, could never violate that holy herbage of the Artillery Ground. Bank of England Volunteers, Royal East India Volunteers, and City Police, looked with ineffectual longing through the wrought-iron gates into a drill ground smoky but unmatched in the metropolis. Their prayers were regularly declined with regrets. No such politeness softened the Company's rejection of a letter in 1873 from the officers of the City Volunteer regiments, in which the Court of Assistants was requested to admit the Volunteers to drill in its ground, as being "the successors of the London Trained Bands." The Court would not consent even to "receive the letter," in consequence of "the most offensive and unwarrantable terms in which it was written." The offensiveness was in the Volunteers' claim to be in the place of the ancient Trained Bands. The Volunteers would have withdrawn that allegation. But the Company refused to be appeased. They declared that the terms of their lease did not even allow them to suffer the Volunteers to drill in their ground for a few hours on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

The Company's success on this occasion in playing the dog in the manger made amends for its defeat seventy-three years before. In the interval, however, it sustained two very considerable reverses, and from its own Captains-General. The year 1840 saw "the commencement of the first great struggle between the civil and military authorities of the Company." King George IV., who had been Captain-General when Prince of Wales, retained the command when King. The frequent changes in uniform which Captain Raikes records during that period are apparently to be attributed to the fine taste in tailoring of the "first gentleman." The Duke of Sussex had been Colonel under him, and on his death was appointed by the Queen Captain-General. Three years later some members of the Company met together and passed resolutions for various military changes. The Captain-General declared this to be subversive of all military discipline, there being a proper military committee for such matters. The Court of Assistants received the remonstrance not very amiably, insisting that, being citizens as well as soldiers, and serving at their own cost, they were not bound by strict military etiquette. The Captain-General laid the matter before Sir James Graham, who was Home Secretary. Sir James Graham intimated that, unless the Company showed a better disciplined temper, "he must advise the breaking up of a corps where such improper notions and feelings were entertained." The Company, mingling discretion with its valour, submitted; and the Crown took into its own hands the appointment to the posts—previously elective—of the field officers and adjutant. That was rebuff the first. On the death of the Duke of Sussex, Prince Albert was nominated Captain-General and Colonel, and the officers assumed a new forage cap. The Company was exultant at its continued connexion with the Throne. But it found that the new Captain-General took a serious aspect of his duties. In 1849 the less tractable members of the Company, puffed up probably by the splendour of their public services during the Chartist demonstration of the preceding year, persuaded the Annual General Court to pass a Resolution that "the Court of Assistants should have the exclusive cognizance of all offences, civil and military." They obtained a majority in the Court of Assistants, and made the Court address the Queen for a restoration of the old privilege of electing the officers, whether commissioned or non-commissioned. It appeared nevertheless that the numerical strength of the Company was on the side of military authority. While only 126 signed an address to the Prince in favour of the Resolution and Address to Her Majesty, 190 signed an address against both. In vain the former party invoked and obtained the aid of the Court of Aldermen, who represented that their privileges with regard to the exclusion of any regular armed force might lead to the loss by the City of the presence within it of this invaluable body of defenders. The Prince, like the Duke of Sussex, appealed to the Home Office. Sir George Grey threatened, like Sir James Graham, to recommend the dissolution of the Company should it insist upon bearing arms without submitting to ordinary military discipline.

Thus was quenched by the heavy hand of Whig bureaucracy the last spark of the old spirit of civic independence in Bunhill Fields. The uniform was changed; and the photographs of the gallant fellows in their new and prosaic garb present a dreary contrast to the old pictures. Even the gold sash which the superior officers had been specially authorized by King George IV. to wear at Court was stripped off them. The reason alleged was lest they should too closely resemble Guardsmen, as if that had not been the sash's especial value. Unlike the old days, when to bear themselves handsomely and not be prematurely "disguised in liquor" on Lord Mayor's Day was about all which was expected of Honourable Artillerymen, they are now positively "required to attend regimental drills regularly." In its new career we can well believe that the Company acquits itself becomingly, and is remarked for efficiency among Volunteer Corps. Good officers, like Captain Raikes, both record its achievements and secure that they deserve to be recorded. But we must be pardoned by the historiographer for a certain feeling of regret that all is so spick and span and respectable and military among the martial tenants of the dismal old Artillery Ground. There were always courageous

Volunteers and steady Regulars for the asking in England; but there was only one London Artillery Company with its long roll of trivial deeds and queer and pompous pretensions. The Honourable Company, though its name remains, is numbered to all essential purposes with the dead; and Captain Raikes has written its epitaph in two big and painstaking volumes.

ALPHONSE KARR'S LOG-BOOK.*

THE period of 1830 in French literature seems strangely far off to students and critics of the latest generation, who can scarcely realize the violence with which the great conflict between the Classical and Romantic schools was conducted. Yet the greatest leader of the Romanticists still lives, and so do some of the lesser members of the band, one of whom, M. Alphonse Karr, has collected, under the title of *Le Livre de Bord*, some reminiscences which, if scattered and chaotic, are not without attraction. The beginning of M. Karr's career was perhaps more curious than pleasant. In his youth he entered the Collège Bourbon, where he met with M. Legouvé, with Sainte-Beuve and with Gustave Planché. His purse was slender and he paid his "pension" by giving lessons to the lower classes of the Collège. What spare time was left to him he employed in composing a tragedy and a long epic poem. After he had to leave the Collège, on account of a difference with one of the masters, he attempted to obtain a place as a lock-keeper on the Seine, in which position he thought he would find plenty of time to devote to his tragedy. Giving up this scheme, he became an usher in a school kept by an old acquaintance, who appears to have been a most objectionable rascal. This man kept M. Karr on short commons, he cheated him, and finally coming home drunk, attempted to shoot him, on which M. Karr prudently knocked him down and left the house. Then he obtained a master's place at the Collège Bourbon, and devoted all his leisure moments to writing article after article, which he put into the editorial box of the *Figaro*, the columns of which he watched anxiously every Sunday when at a *café* he ran through the file of the past week. On one of these Sundays he was astonished by seeing the heading of one of his articles in print. "M'aurait-on volé mon titre?" he asked himself; "mais non, cette première ligne est de moi et la seconde aussi; c'est un de mes articles; je ne dors pas!" A yet greater surprise was in store for him; the second article was his also, and so was the third. "Il n'y en a que trois; tout le journal est de moi!" The *Figaro* of that day had at least one attentive and contented reader. M. Karr's only touch of disappointment lay in the fact that none of his poetry had been inserted. The following Sunday he went to see Victor Bohain, the editor, and Nestor Roqueplan. "You have been so kind," said Bohain, "for some time past as to send us contributions 'tant en vers qu'en prose.'" "Tant en vers qu'en prose," repeated Nestor with emphasis. "Your verses," continued Bohain, "are charming; but I would sooner die than put one of them into the paper. When I bought it verses were admitted, and we had twenty-eight subscribers. We must have prose, and nothing but prose. What you have done is very good, but you will improve with practice. You must get up politics." Nestor, seeing M. Karr's discomfiture, added, "My dear sir, writing political articles is easier than you seem to think; the *Figaro* is an Opposition paper, and when that is remembered, everything else is simple enough." "Vous attaquez, vous blâmez et vous blaguez tout ce que fait le Gouvernement; ses lois sont mauvaises, ses ministres imbéciles, les maîtresses de ses ministres sont laides et vieilles; ou les habits des ministres sont chamarrés d'or—et le célèbre Timon, c'est-à-dire M. de Cormenin, prétend que 'cet or est tissé de la sueur du peuple'—on ces habits sont simples, et alors ce sont des haillons—leurs chevaux sont des rosses, et aucun de leurs discours n'est écrit en Français." "Yes," added Bohain, gravely, "the thing is, as you see, quite simple."

Later on M. Karr learnt how it was that his articles had suddenly appeared in such profusion. The contributors to the *Figaro* had demanded more pay; the editor had refused; and the result was a strike. At that time writers of the highest order were paid at the rate of five francs a column, or less than a sou a line, and what they struck for was an increase of two francs per column. The first day of the strike Bohain and Nestor Roqueplan wrote the whole paper between them; the second they hunted among the outside contributions put aside for possible consideration, and coming upon M. Karr's filled the paper with them. The description of the way in which political articles were manufactured was evidently not overcharged. Bohain and Roqueplan constantly urged M. Karr to pay more attention to politics, and one day they applauded him for an allusion to the intemperate habits of some Minister. "You see," said Nestor, "I told you it was easy enough." "But," replied M. Karr, "I know nothing about such things as these. It was in the columns of the *Figaro* that I first read of this Minister's unhappy fondness for drink." "Do you suppose," said Roqueplan, "that your colleagues know any more about such things than you do? As to this disastrous propensity, I don't see why you shouldn't have invented it as easily as Brucker did, for it is probably not true." "Not true?" asked M. Karr, astounded. "Well, it would perhaps be going too far to assert positively that it is not true; all that is quite certain is that we know nothing about it."

* *Le Livre de Bord*. Par Alphonse Karr. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

M. Karr gives a too brief account of a dinner given to celebrate his admission on the staff of the *Figaro*, at which were present, besides Bohain and Roqueplan, Jules Janin, Béquet, Méry, Rolle, Alphonse Royer, Gozlan, Blanqui, Brucker, Michel Masson, Léon Vidal, Eléonore de Vaulabelle, and others; and he goes on to tell us how, not long after this dinner, a Government prosecution was instituted against the *Figaro*. The cause for this prosecution was the publication of this sentence—"On a vu hier M. Roux entrer aux Tuileries." Now M. Roux was a celebrated oculist, and to say that he had been seen entering the Tuileries was evidently to say that His Majesty Charles X. was going blind. For this Bohain was sentenced to a year's imprisonment.

This seems startling enough, but it is perhaps hardly more curious than the account which M. Karr gives of newspaper prosecutions in general at that period. The conduct of such cases for the defence was beginning to be exceedingly popular among young advocates, since of course the paper defended, and all other papers of the same political creed, gave every possible publicity to the name of the counsel for the defence, and all possible praise to his speech. One day a young advocate might be walking disconsolate and unknown in the Salle des Pas-Perdus; the next all Paris knew not only his name, but was further told that he was a fit successor to Cicero, Demosthenes, or Mirabeau. Consequently, as of course it was only Opposition papers that stood in need of counsel's aid, the junior bar, or great part of it, went over by degrees to the Opposition. They undertook such cases without a fee, and in their speeches tried, instead of exculpating the paper in other ways, to make out that the writers had not been half severe enough on the conduct of the Government. The result was that the judges became exasperated, that the client got the *maximum* penalty, and the newspaper and the counsel an excellent advertisement. In one case a Government prosecution was eagerly sought for, and regarded as a Heaven-sent deliverance. This was when a paper was in a bad way financially, and its creditors became pressing. The prosecution took place, and saved the concern. "Il n'était pas sans exemple qu'un journal, en pareille circonstance, fût aidé et relevé par ses coreligionnaires. En tout cas on tombait glorieusement sur le champ d'honneur, victime du despotisme de la royauté et du 'parti prêtre.' Ni le marchand de papier ni l'imprimeur n'osaient rien réclamer."

Among M. Karr's extremely rambling and incoherent anecdotes of his newspaper life at this period there is one which relates to one of the many speculations of Victor Bohain. This arose out of the fact that a young man named Napoléon Landais came to M. Karr to beg for a helping hand on the road of literature and journalism. This young man was not a brilliant or an apt young man, and finally M. Karr sent him to Bohain, who had various literary projects on hand, in which Landais's knowledge, such as it was, picked up when he was usher at a school, might be of some use. "I have undertaken to do something for your young man," said Bohain, "for a reason which you will not guess. It is that his name is Napoléon." The "légende Napoléonienne" was then in full force. Louis Philippe was the Napoléon de la paix, Arago the Napoléon de l'astronomie, Vésout the Napoléon de la cuisine, Franconi the Napoléon du cheval, and so on. "I shall make your man," continued Bohain, "work at a great dictionary, which will be published in parts." "But I never told you," replied M. Karr, "that Landais could make a dictionary." "What does that matter? His name is Napoléon, and when the Parisians have seen Napoléon Landais in large letters on the walls for six months, he will be a famous man. As for the dictionary, it's odd if the newest dictionary is not at least as good as the newest but one, for it's simply a question of copying that with a few additions and omissions." In due time the dictionary appeared with complete success; but before this result was attained a vexatious incident befell Bohain. Just when everything was ready for the appearance in a blaze of triumph of the first part, a publisher came to Bohain and said, "M. Landais has made over to me the copyright of this novel which he has written. Read these few pages; they contain over a hundred grammatical blunders. When you publish the dictionary I shall publish the novel with all its faults, and there'll be an end to your scheme." Bohain came to the point with "Combien voulez-vous?" and the affair was arranged; but Bohain's natural comment upon it was, "Quelle sottise d'avoir pris l'homme avec le nom; c'était si facile à inventer ce nom-là!"

CHRONICLES OF NO-MAN'S LAND.*

UNDER this somewhat fanciful title Mr. Boyle has published a third collection of his entertaining papers. Even in the adventurous corps of War Correspondents who hold themselves ready on the shortest notice for missions to any quarter of the globe, few men have seen more service than Mr. Boyle. He has been with the Rajahs of the Brooke dynasty in Borneo; and, if we remember rightly, with "the grey-eyed filibuster" Walker in Nicaragua; he has made the campaigns of Ashanti and Afghanistan with the British troops, and accompanied the forces of Turks and Russians in the more ferocious warfare in Serbia and Bulgaria; he has lived with the silver miners of Chontales and the diamond-

* *Chronicles of No-Man's Land*. A Third Series of "Camp Notes." By Fred. Boyle, Author of "To the Cape for Diamonds," &c. London: Chapman & Hall. 1880.

diggers of the Transvaal. Consequently, when he sets his memory to work, or makes reference to his multifarious note-books, he draws upon a rich repertory of varied incident and information. Nobody can complain of lack of variety in his present book; and indeed the most conspicuous feature of the compilation is the designed absence of method. We are hurried in quick transition from one side of the world to the other; and make passing acquaintance in a succession of lively chapters with Malays and Serbs, Ashantis and Pathans.

Mr. Boyle has one characteristic quality of the Special Correspondent. He holds strong opinions and expresses them decidedly—perhaps sometimes too decidedly; though, to do him justice, they are generally founded on close observation and considerable experience. On no subject is he more frankly outspoken than on the emancipated Christian races of the East, whose brilliant capabilities for better things have been the theme of so much burning eloquence among the orators who denounce Lord Beaconsfield as a Mephistopheles. "To feel the due depth of horror which should be excited by 'Bulgarian atrocities,' it is essential that a man should not have visited these countries, should not have talked with refugees." The Serbs, according to Mr. Boyle, are well enough if you take them for what they are—that is to say, for a half-civilized people, with some sprinkling of negative semi-savage virtues. They bear calamities almost too patiently; with a fatalism akin to that of the Turk, but arising rather from stolid apathy than religious sentiment. It is not their fault that they are ignorant and superstitious; but they are callously brutal as well. Without being positively cruel, they were absolutely indifferent to the sufferings of their own wounded. It was not only that they never volunteered for service in the ambulance corps or the hospitals. But Mr. Boyle says that he has seen women step over the bodies of prostrate sufferers lying at their doors without an offer of assistance or even a sign of sympathy. As soldiers he pronounces the men almost worthless; and this was the opinion of Russian officers, who left Serbia with a profound contempt for the allies they came to lead. Yet the Serbs spoke so big on the eve of engagements that they deceived even their own countrymen, who ought to have known them better. When Mr. Boyle asked some destitute refugees why they had not used the time at their disposal to place their property in safety, they gave in cautious tones the significant answer, "We thought the Serbs would fight." Nor has he any strong faith in the material prosperity of the country now that it has been relieved from the incubus of Ottoman superiority. The educated upper classes are the most objectionable members of the community. They are puffed up with conceit and shallow self-complacency. Many of them are fairly well off, or even rich; but they take care to place their capital beyond reach of domestic troubles, investing it, for the most part, in Austria and Roumania. Consequently they have a comparatively slight stake in the country, and they leave its politics to penniless adventurers. Riccio rose to the premiership from handling a barber's razor, and his success should say something for his shrewdness, though Mr. Boyle declares him to be anything but clever. If Mr. Boyle's account of the people may be trusted, we can only say it is a pity they are not more prepossessing, since Serbia has undoubtedly attractions for tourists. Though it has neither lakes nor mountains, it has magnificent forests, and some of the hill scenery has a gloomy grandeur of its own. As for the living, it must be a miracle of cheapness. We are told that "three-half-pence a pair for fowls is thought no less than robbery at Belgrade"; while Mr. Boyle's native coachman swore and grumbled for a day at an over-charge of fivepence-halfpenny for a couple of fat geese. The Bulgarians are described as still less taking than their Serbian neighbours, and more radically vicious. They can boast the single virtue of industry, which explains that rude plenty in their villages which excited the envy of the Russian liberators, while it exculpated the much-abused Turks from the worst charges of habitual oppression. Mr. Boyle has seen a Bulgarian family hard at work in their field by the side of the road; and no one of the party lifted his head to cast a glance at the glittering staff of a Russian Grand Duke. But their "stupidity is only matched by their sullen ill-will." Though they love money, they will neither sell nor give. They will fight doggedly when "cornered"; but never if they can help it. As for the malignity of their reprisals on their helpless Turkish neighbours, it surpassed the atrocity of those outrages by Circassians and Bashi-Bazouks which raised the storm of indignant execration through Europe. "In a wine-shop at Sistof a Bulgarian was displaying his hacked knife when my courier entered. He said, 'At first I used to go out with a gun, but this is better. I have killed ten of them. I have cut them up like lambs.'" And it must be remembered that the man was a specimen of the "peaceable peasant," and that he had no cause of personal enmity to the helpless victims he butchered.

From Mr. Boyle's gloomy pictures of the races to whom the more emotional philanthropists of Europe would confide the regeneration of the East, we pass to the wilds of West Africa by a natural train of association. In a specially noteworthy chapter entitled "The Resurrection of Ashanti," he gives a strange sketch of the history of the kingdom since Sir Garnet Wolseley shattered the power of Koffee Kalkalli. The authority for his statements is a certain Mr. Kean, who made his way to the capital with a couple of English companions, having been persuaded to the adventure by an article in which Mr. Boyle had spoken of the extraordinary wealth of Ashanti Land in accumulated nuggets and gold dust. The three English-

men succeeded in reaching Coomassie, passing the deserted forts and stockades that marked the line of the British advance and withdrawal. They were treated with inquisitive civility by the natives, though many districts that used to be covered with villages were now abandoned to jungle and wild animals. The travellers found Coomassie in excitement. There was a great gathering of the caboceers or chiefs, and it seemed evident that the Ashantees were in a political crisis. Yet the Englishmen were suffered to go about much as they pleased; they met nobles in silken robes and golden ornaments, who courteously saluted them; they gazed on the traces of English occupation in the shape of rows of shattered houses still scorched and cracked by fire; and they were only turned back from the sacred precincts of the palace that was tenanted at the time by Koffee Kalkalli in person. But the crowning sensation was to come. On the morrow they were invited to accompany one of the great feudatory princes to a council hall erected in haste, where a grand national palaver was being held. Three hundred chiefs were present, with their immediate attendants grouped behind them. The question for discussion was nothing less than the deposition of Koffee Kalkalli, who was arraigned by a venerable caboceer in a vigorous oration as the destroyer of his country. The monarch was summoned to appear in person and defend himself, and he came accordingly. He was received with ceremonious though chilling respect, and was heard calmly and patiently. He urged that he had been forced into the unfortunate war, but pleaded guilty to the charge of having been singularly unlucky in it. His fetich had deserted him, he said. The sovereign of Ashanti should be the favourite of the gods, and he requested permission to come down from the stool of state, and take his seat in the circle of the caboceers. So it was arranged; and one of his brethren was promptly elected his successor. Perhaps, Mr. Boyle remarks, the strangest act in the strange drama was that which followed. According to all the precedents of barbaric policy, and indeed of certain Courts that call themselves civilized, we should have supposed that the fallen king would have been made away with publicly or privately. It seemed a case for applying the maxim that "stone-dead has no fellow." But, on the contrary, Koffee Kalkalli's homage having been graciously received by his brother, he craved permission to prefer a request. He asked no less a boon than the post of commander-in-chief of all the armies of Ashanti, and it was given him on the moment, without any appearance of distrust. Though a minority objected, they grounded their protest on the incompetency of the new-made general, not on the presumption that he would abuse his power. Subsequently the feudatory who had taken the Englishmen under his special protection explained the political situation to them, apparently in consequence of instructions from the King. The allied kingdoms of Ashanti had fallen away from her. She had, but ten thousand fighting men, guns for three thousand, and very little powder. On the other hand, Bequoi had twice as many men and guns, with great abundance of ammunition; while Djabin could place fifty thousand soldiers in the field. The caboceer concluded by offering magnificent terms to secure the military services of the Englishmen and the use of "their fetich." It appears that the Englishmen assented; but at that point, as Mr. Boyle informs us, the manuscript of the narrator comes to a tantalizing conclusion. It is of the less consequence that the *dénouement* of the story seems to be matter of history among Europeans on the Gold Coast. The new King had recruited a corps of Houssas, armed with breech-loaders and drilled by the Europeans. By superior discipline and the help of these auxiliaries, the armies of Bequoi were utterly routed, the kingdom again subjected, and the troops brought back into the Ashanti ranks. As for the still more formidable power of Djabin, we are told that its collapse has been even more complete; its capital has been razed from the face of the earth, while its subjects have been likewise absorbed among the Ashantees. Mr. Boyle asserts that the power of Ashanti has become far more formidable than before our invasion; and that these "barbarian" neighbours of ours are fully alive to the fact, and confident in their improved discipline and equipments. "Let those of the late Government," he concludes, "who persuaded us to keep the Gold Coast now observe the situation there and tell us what to do. For those who served in the war are puzzled." We have directed attention to the most interesting or striking articles in the volume, but several of the rest are well worth reading.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

PROFESSOR WALKER has on more than one former occasion done good service in the diffusion of clearer and more correct notions upon some elementary, but very important, practical principles of political economy than generally prevail among his countrymen. His views, however, are not always orthodox, at least with reference to the standard of thought recognized among French as well as English economists, especially upon the subject of money. As the present work (1) is devoted chiefly to this particular point, it exhibits perhaps less of the author's merits and more of his peculiar defects or eccentricities. It has, however, a merit for which students and opponents alike have reason to be

(1) *Money in its Relations to Trade and Industry.* By Francis A. Walker, Professor of Political Economy and History, Yale College, Author of "The Wages Question," &c. London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

grateful—that of distinct statement and generally lucid explanation. Two principal points in the present treatise are likely to excite attention and criticism. The first relates to the standard of value, or, as, for the purpose of greater distinctness in the expression of his particular meaning, the author calls it, the standard of deferred payments. Professor Walker frankly admits that for short periods gold or silver (he would perhaps say gold and silver) afford the best or at least the most convenient measure of value as well as the only practically available machinery. For short periods the value of the precious metals, and especially of gold, fluctuates less than any other measure that could be adopted; but this could hardly be said of money incomes fixed for a long period. Consequently the Professor proposes, in regard to contracts at long dates—such as leases or national debts—a contract based on the market prices of a great number of articles largely and permanently consumed, these prices to be periodically ascertained by official commissioners. But surely it might have occurred to him that any tendency of the precious metals to depreciation is, in an age like this, sufficiently discounted by the prudence of contracting parties, and that the injustice done is at any rate one of those to which, for common convenience and with no great practical hardship, science as well as Government applies the rule *de minimis*. Still the idea is neither essentially unsound nor impracticable, as is shown by the existence of corn-rents and *metayer* contracts, and the English system of tithe commutation. More serious theoretical, if not practical, objections may be urged against his second special heresy bi-metallism. All the Professor's reasoning cannot get rid of the fact that the comparative value of gold and silver constantly fluctuates. How great and how sudden may be these fluctuations we have recently been reminded to our cost. The double standard, as the Professor himself does not deny, though he fails to make the point so clear as might be desired, simply enables the debtor to avail himself of every such fluctuation to cheat the creditor; or, since the double standard is itself part of the contract, it might be more correct to say, renders all contracts in some degree uncertain, to the disadvantage of the creditor. This injustice or uncertainty is of a much graver and more practical kind than that caused by the secular fluctuations in purchasing power of either metal singly. One very interesting and instructive portion of the book has an historical rather than a practical value. We refer to the author's brief, but clear and tolerably complete, sketch of the causes of the accumulation of the precious metals in royal and imperial treasuries prior to the conquests of Alexander and of the later Roman Republic, the dispersal of these treasures during the period of the Empire, the diminution, if not cessation, of production under the later Cæsars and their barbarian successors, and the consequent "silver famine" of the middle ages, and the extraordinary revolution introduced in this respect by the discovery of America. In a few pages he gives a clear account of a part of economic history too much neglected by historians, and affords to the student a light by which many otherwise half-understood or wholly inexplicable problems may be easily solved.

Mr. S. P. Day's sketches of American life and society (2) are alike unpleasant and unjust. We do not mean to say that many of his criticisms are not well founded, or that the disagreeable incidents and offensive peculiarities he describes may not be met with in the course of a six months' sojourn in the States. But, when the general result of such sketches and criticisms is to represent that as usual which is at most but incidental, or to give undue prominence to the disagreeable features of a picture necessarily drawn in outline, we have a caricature, not a portrait, and a caricature of which a less sensitive people than our Transatlantic cousins might not unnaturally complain. For example, the general impression left on the mind of any reader of this volume wholly unacquainted with America would be that the hotels are thoroughly uncomfortable, and hardly fit for English ladies; at least that ladies must meet with much discomfort and some annoyance in Transatlantic travel. We do not hesitate to say that, despite the necessary intermingling of all classes at a common table, this is not the case. The custom may not be less distasteful to those who cling closely to the reserve and privacy characteristic of English manners than the Continental table d'hôte. But it is certainly not more so. The scrambling, the difficulty of obtaining attention from waiters, described by Mr. Day, does not at all accord with our own experience. On the contrary, nothing seems to us more surprising than the certainty with which travellers do contrive to get fed, and comfortably fed, under the very peculiar and difficult conditions sometimes to be met with in American travelling. A hundred hungry people pour out of a train at a side station where twenty minutes are allowed for a meal. It seems impossible that everybody should be served before the bell rings, and no doubt the time allowed is insufficient for those who habitually regard their comfort and their digestion. But we have seen over and over again how certainly those who will wait will find the implied contract strictly fulfilled, will get for their half dollar or dollar all, even to the cup of rather weak coffee or tea, which the refreshment vendor professes to afford. In the great hotels of such cities as New York, Chicago, and St. Louis, the meals, though less comfortable, are as good as and cheaper than those of English inns whose bills would reach twice or thrice the amount; and if Mr. Day has really found the chambers assigned to him as a bachelor

so exceedingly uncomfortable, he must either have been accustomed to much more luxurious accommodation than most bachelors of moderate means find at home, or must have been singularly out of favour with the hotel clerks on whose goodwill he was dependent. The women, especially the young women, and children of the North are doubtless noisy and forward according to the English standard. But perhaps Frenchmen might be similarly impressed by some peculiarities of English usage; and if the traveller's taste may be occasionally offended by a display of reckless noisy talkativeness on the part of young girls, if he is startled by the extreme self-possession, coolness, and independence of the merest children, it is but just to say that it is his taste only that is likely to be offended—that, if the juvenile population of the States are prematurely forward and self-dependent, they have learnt earlier than English children that respect for the rights of others which self-dependence involves and requires. To the South, moreover, and especially to the older settled States on the Atlantic coast, we believe that hardly any of Mr. Day's social criticisms can be applied without a very large deduction. His complaints of the provision for the material comfort of travellers no doubt do apply there to a much greater extent than in the North; but, on the other hand, the hotels, which can no longer feed the traveller as they did before the war, at any rate acknowledge, in the moderation of their charges, the inferior quality of their accommodation. We must agree, however, with one of Mr. Day's remarks. The negroes are by far the best, most agreeable, and most courteous of American servants. Perhaps for this reason they are extensively employed in all those hotels which, not being conducted on the English system, cannot expect to have the civility of their waiters ensured by English methods and at English cost.

Mr. Benjamin's treatise on Art in America (3) is of course open to criticism on the score alike of disappointing omissions and of what seems disproportionate attention given to particular artists or schools. But where individual taste enters so largely into the selection and treatment of the subject this could not but be the case. It is possible also that no other critic would agree in all, perhaps in the majority, of Mr. Benjamin's criticisms, and we shall not add to the number of those who will challenge them. It must be granted that the author has done his best to vindicate them by the insertion of a great number of well-selected illustrations, so executed as to do such justice as small engravings adapted to the pages of a volume of moderate size can do to elaborate landscape and figure paintings in oil. As an ornament to the drawing-room table the book will no doubt be deservedly a favourite.

Mr. Allibone's *Great Authors of all Ages* (4) is hardly true to its title. It begins rather oddly with the name of Pericles, which is attached to the speech recorded by Thucydides in language which, as with all the Thucydidean speeches, is most assuredly the author's and not the orator's. Next come fragments of Cicero, Sallust, and Pliny the Younger; not a line from Cæsar or Tacitus; not one from Herodotus, Xenophon, or Demosthenes. Petrarch, Macchiavelli, Sir Thomas More, Latimer, Ridley, Montaigne, Raleigh, Bacon, Hobbes, Elyot represent, with a few others, what may be called the middle age of European literature. Among modern writers the selection is of course much larger, but perhaps hardly more complete. For what purpose such collections are made it is difficult to understand. Even the most superficial readers of a superficial age and country can hardly suppose that by extracts thus selected they obtain a real knowledge either of the individual authors or of the general character and tone of literature at different periods and in different languages. How much the wiser on any subject would be the reader who should have perused attentively every page of this heavy and closely-printed volume we cannot conceive.

Infinitely greater interest and value belong to the simple story, told in language which, while not affectingly simple, must be intelligible to the youngest children, of Magellan (5), the great discoverer of the Straits that bear his name, the undertaker of the first voyage round the world, though unhappily he did not live to see his enterprise accomplished. The subject is one of profound interest—an interest which children and adults are equally capable of feeling. The incidents, in themselves exciting, are clearly and well told, and an almost absolute freedom from cant and affectation characterizes one of the best volumes of a series for which young and old alike may be grateful to Messrs. Lee and Shepard.

Mr. Waring's *Book of the Farm* (6) will appear to critics unable to apply to it the standard of actual experience to bear that practical character which he claims for it. Its topics seem well arranged, and are certainly treated with remarkable clearness. The author has had no little experience of his own, and has profited largely

(2) *Life and Society in America*. By Samuel Phillips Day, Author of "Down South," &c. London: Newman & Co. 1880.

(3) *Art in America: a Critical and Historical Sketch*. By S. G. W. Benjamin, Author of "Contemporary Art in Europe," &c. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Brothers. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

(4) *Great Authors of all Ages; being Selections from the Prose Works of Eminent Writers from the Time of Pericles to the Present Day*. With Indexes. By S. A. Allibone, Author of "Poetical Quotations from Chaucer to Tennyson," &c. Philadelphia and London: Lippincott & Co. 1880.

(5) *Magellan; or, the First Voyage Round the World*. By George M. Towle, Author of "Vasco da Gama," &c. Boston: Lee & Shepard. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

(6) *Waring's Book of the Farm; being a Revised Edition of "The Handy-book of Husbandry": a Guide for Farmers*. By George E. Waring, Junr. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Porter & Coats. London: Trübner & Co.

by that of others. He deals with all the various conditions of good farming under American circumstances carefully and elaborately, dwelling more than we might have expected from an American on the importance of manure, the paramount necessity of returning to the soil the elements that are drawn from it, as a rule, with somewhat reckless eagerness. The work contains many hints that may be useful to those who are not farmers in the poultry-yard, the stable, or the garden.

Mr. Dana's work on the Corals and Coral Islands (7) whose history involves some of the most important and doubtful questions in the natural history of the globe we inhabit, is less dry and technical than it appears at first sight, and makes no demand on the patience or attention of the reader that the subject or the author's treatment of it does not fully warrant. A great majority of well-read men and women have probably but a very dim idea of the real character of the various coralline structures and of the polyps by which they have been in some sense built; a very faint notion even of the form and appearance of the living or dead varieties, save only that which, distinguished as the precious coral, is the best known and most valued of all, but perhaps, from any other point of view than that of purely human use, the least important. A little time given to Mr. Dana's well-written and excellently printed work, with its few clear and well-executed illustrations, will enable any reader of average intelligence to understand what the coral islands are, how they have been formed, what is the appearance, what the life of the creatures by which they have been in the course of ages constructed, and what are the circumstances under which alone they can come into existence; by a knowledge of which their part in the geological history of the world can be assigned, and important inferences drawn with regard to the past of those seas in which alone they are found. Mr. Dana has come to the conclusion, strongly urged by the most recent and best-informed authorities, that the atoll, the barrier, and nearly all the forms of coral islands or lagoons to be found chiefly in the equatorial waters of the Pacific imply a gradual but very slow subsidence of ground which must, when their work began, have been within twenty fathoms of the surface; and that this, as is proved by the height of many of these structures, must have gone on sinking for thousands of years and hundreds of feet afterwards. Mr. Dana argues, and apparently on sufficient grounds, that the coral reefs to which atolls and islands alike owe their peculiar character and construction, can come into existence only where subsidence is going on at a certain very slow rate; that this, with the other conditions of their existence, occurred only in those parts of the world where coral reefs are found, chiefly in the Pacific; that the other sunken continents in which, for various reasons, geologists are more or less disposed to believe, probably sank too rapidly to allow the industrious polyps to repair their loss; and that this, and this alone, is the reason why corals are unknown and islands so rare in the Atlantic. The whole subject in all its various branches is well and lucidly treated.

Brazil (8), like most other South American countries, Chili perhaps excepted, is not in the best possible odour with European diplomatists, investors, or emigrants; each class having reasons of its own for trusting the Imperial Government almost as little as the Argentine Republic or the anarchy of Peru. What Brazil might have to say in answer to her various accusers is another matter. The complainants have been heard at ample length, and the defence, if any has been made, has failed to reach the ears or satisfy the judgment of the Old World. Even to travellers a country very little known, and from many points of view both interesting and attractive, does not seem especially agreeable. It is impossible in these days of geographical enthusiasm that a river like the Amazon should not draw numerous adventurers to explore the vast expanse of its branching waters; but somehow we hear or remember more of their sufferings or disappointments than of their successes. If travellers have not much that is absolutely new to tell, they may at any rate describe what they have seen, and tell what they have done and suffered, without feeling that sense of treading on beaten and familiar ground which nowadays might discourage the most adventurous and thorough-going of explorers, even in countries so lately thrown open to European enterprise as China and Japan. Mr. Herbert Smith, who has repeatedly visited Brazil within the last ten years, who first proposed to himself to write about the country because he had seen something of it, and more lately returned thither that he might write a book worth reading, has, we think, fairly accomplished his purpose. He has much to tell of Brazilian life, society, industry, scenery, zoology—in fact, of Brazil in every aspect and from every point of view; and if, in consequence, his book is somewhat solid, the reader will not find it wearisome.

Mr. Packard's treatise on Zoology (9) appeals rather to the student than to the general reader, for whom also it professes to be intended. The latter, we think, will find it too long, too minute, and hardly adapted to his purpose. Indeed the same work can hardly answer both ends. The proportions required are distinct in the two cases. It is to the professed student of zoology that Mr. Packard's work is, we think, likely to be especially useful; and it

would seem that the author has spared no pains, thought no elaboration needless, to assist the genuine student in the laboratory or the class-room or to guide his researches out of doors.

A valuable, and in its way an interesting, zoological monograph is Mr. D. G. Elliot's very elaborate synopsis of the Trochilidae (10), a complete scientific and technical account of all the innumerable species of humming-birds.

What Mr. Root modestly calls in his first title the *A B C of Bee Culture* (11) is really, as described in the sub-title, a cyclopaedia of apiculture arranged in the form of a dictionary, and giving minute instructions and counsel, as well as elaborate narratives of experiment in every branch of this interesting art, by the most prominent of the numerous bee-keepers of the States, wherein the production of honey is a large and important industry.

Mr. King's *Trouting on the Brulé River* (12) is a lively and readable, but decidedly too lengthy, account of a pleasantly spent holiday, by one who is at once a hard-working lawyer by profession and an eager enthusiast in angling.

Mr. Batty, the author of a practical treatise on taxidermy (13), contrives to give to what professes to be nothing more than a manual of his art the interest attaching to the personal experiences of a naturalist and sportsman, who has devoted the best years of his life and the skill and intentness of an ardent votary at once of sport and science to the study of the habits of wild creatures, as well as of the means of killing them and preserving their forms to ornament the home or enlighten the frequenters of the museum.

The author of *The Reign of God* (14) has written some four hundred pages to prove that Christian faith and belief in the veracity of Scripture are utterly incompatible with the acceptance of the latest theories of science, of the doctrine of evolution, or indeed of the doctrine of uniform law governing the world since its creation; an argument for which thoughtful and earnest theologians may perhaps not be quite so grateful as the writer evidently expects, or as his zeal and industry might seem to deserve. It has evidently never occurred to him that the conclusion he desires to draw may be exactly inverted. Indeed he supposes himself to have proved at the very outset that no such thing as a "reign of law" exists, or at least can be demonstrated.

Dr. Church's monograph on the Comstock Lode (15), the great silver vein of Nevada, whose extent and limits have even yet not been thoroughly ascertained, has a special technical and scientific value rather than a general interest.

The same may be said of the three numbers of Mr. Van Nostrand's Science Series (16) now before us, which deal with fluid motions, with the theory of the arch, and the form and use of articulate links.

Mr. Gardner's partly professional, partly practical, partly social treatise on *Common Sense in Church Building* (17) has at least the merit of brevity and freedom from perplexing technicalities.

(10) *A Classification and Synopsis of the Trochilidae*. By Daniel G. Elliot, F.R.S.E., &c. Washington: The Smithsonian Institution. London: Trübner & Co. 1879.

(11) *The A B C of Bee Culture: a Cyclopaedia of everything pertaining to the care of the Honey-Bee*. By A. J. Root. Medina, Ohio: A. J. Root. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

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(17) *Common Sense in Church-Building*. Illustrated. By E. C. Gardner, Author of "Homes and How to Make Them," &c. New York: Bicknell & Comstock. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

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(7) *Corals and Coral Islands*. By James D. Dana, LL.D., Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in Yale College. New York: Dodd, Mead, & Co. London: Trübner & Co. 1879.

(8) *Brazil: the Amazons and the Coast*. By Herbert H. Smith. Illustrated. New York: C. Scribner's Sons. London: Trübner & Co. 1879.

(9) *Zoology for Students and General Readers*. By A. S. Packard, Jun., M.D., Ph.D. Illustrated. New York: Holt & Co. London: Trübner & Co. 1879.

ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSIONERS for ENGLAND.

REGULATIONS RESPECTING CERTAIN GRANTS OUT OF
THE COMMON FUND.

FEBRUARY 1880.

I. The Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England are prepared to endow a limited number of Churches to which Districts shall have been legally assigned since the Third day of April, 1871, containing in each case, at the date of such assignment, a population of not less than 4,000 persons, and not being situated within the limits of the ancient Parish of Manchester (a), provided that the formation of any such District shall not have involved the reduction below 4,000 persons of the population of any other Benefice receiving a Grant from the Commissioners on the ground of population; the Grants to Churches of this character which may be in public patronage (b) to be made, to the extent of £200 a year, unconditionally, and to those in private patronage, to the extent of £100 a year, upon condition that an Endowment of equal value be provided from non-ecclesiastical sources.

No application will be eligible for consideration under this Regulation, unless and until a Church having suitable accommodation, and in which at least one-half of the sittings are free, shall have been built and consecrated, and a separate District shall have been legally assigned thereto, with authority to the Incumbent to perform all the offices of the Church; and no grant will be made in any case which would raise the permanent endowment of a Church to an amount exceeding £500 a year.

N.B.—The New Districts which have been already formed, in expectation of receiving endowment under such a Regulation as the foregoing, and which fulfil all the conditions attaching thereto, are more than sufficient in number to absorb the whole of the funds which the Commissioners are able to appropriate to this class of Grants during the current year.

II. The Commissioners are further prepared to receive, on or before the 1st of December, 1880, offers of Benefactions of not less than £100 each in capital value towards making better provision for the cure of souls, with a view to such offers being met by the Board with Grants during the Spring of 1881.

N.B.—It must be clearly understood that the Commissioners are not pledged to meet all such offers, the means at their disposal being limited in amount.

The distribution of these Grants will be made subject to the following general Regulations:

1. A Benefaction from Trustees, or from any Diocesan or other Society or body of contributors, as well as from any individual, whether such Benefaction consist of money, land, house, site for a house, tithes, or rentcharge, any or all may be met by a Grant from the Commissioners; but neither a Site for a Church or Burial Ground, nor money to be expended in building a Church, nor a Grant from Queen Anne's Bounty, nor a Benefaction already met by such a Grant, nor money borrowed of Queen Anne's Bounty, nor a charge upon the revenues of any Ecclesiastical Corporation aggregate or sole (except as undermentioned (c)), nor any Endowment, Bequest, Gift, or Benefaction already secured to a Benefice or Church, nor any temporary interest in or charge upon property—can be met by a Grant from the Commissioners.
2. The Grants will consist of Perpetual Annuities in all cases, except those in which, with a view to the provision of Parsonage Houses, or for other reasons, it may appear to the Commissioners to be especially desirable that Capital should be voted.
3. No single Benefice or proposed District will be eligible to receive a Grant of a larger sum than £50 per annum, or of £1,500 in capital, and in no case will the Grant exceed in value the Benefaction offered, the Grant, if it consist of a perpetual annuity, being estimated as worth thirty years' purchase.
4. Districts proposed to be formed out of, or Chapelrys proposed to be severed from, existing Cures, but the formation or severance of which shall not have been legally completed on or before the 1st of January, 1881, will not be eligible to receive Grants, except in cases where the amount of Benefaction offered would, with the Commissioners' Grant, be sufficient to provide an endowment of £150 per annum, or to raise to that amount any endowment previously secured.
5. In selecting cases priority will be given to those which, having regard to income and population, shall appear to be the most necessitous.
6. A Benefice held contrary to the provisions of the Plurality Acts as applicable to new Incumbents will not be considered eligible for a Grant.
7. A Benefice which has received a Grant is not disqualified, on the offer of a further Benefaction, from competing for a further Grant in any subsequent year.
8. The Benefaction, if in cash, and the Grant, if it consists of capital, may, in the case of existing Benefices, with the consent of the Commissioners and the Bishop of the Diocese, be laid out in the purchase of land, or tithes rentcharge, within the Parish or District, or in the purchase or erection of a Parsonage House.
9. Every application must contain a specific offer of a Benefaction, and must reach the Commissioners' Office on or before the 1st of December, 1880, in order to render it eligible to compete for a Grant in the Spring of 1881; and in the event of a Grant being made to a Benefice, the Benefaction, if in money, must be paid to the Commissioners on or before the 1st of May following.

All Communications should be addressed to the SECRETARY, Ecclesiastical Commission, 40 Whitehall Place, London, S.W., and the postage prepaid.

By Order of the Board,

GEORGE PRINGLE, Secretary.

a Having regard to the provisions of "The Parish of Manchester Division Act," by which a special fund is created for the endowment and augmentation of Cures within the parish of Manchester, Part I. of these Regulations will be considered as inapplicable to that parish.

b Videlicet: In the patronage of Her Majesty, either in right of the Crown or of the Duchy of Lancaster, of the Duke of Cornwall, of any Archbishop or Bishop, of any Dean and Chapter, Dean, Archdeacon, Prebendary, or other dignitary or officer in any Cathedral or Collegiate Church, or of any Bishop, Vicar, or Perpetual Curate, as such, or of a body of Trustees not possessing power to sell or transfer the right of presentation.

c Where the Incumbent of a Benefice is willing to surrender a portion of the Endowment of such Benefice towards augmenting the Income of a Church, such surrender will be treated as a Benefaction of a sum equal to seven years' purchase of the net annual income so surrendered.

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